

VISIT...

LANZAROTE
Caliente.COM

现代语言学

高等教育自学考试同步辅导/同步训练

全国高等教育自学考试指定教材辅导用书

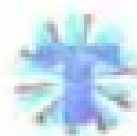
张群 郑淑娟 / 编著

英语专业 (本科段)



TARGET 目标自考系列

中国社会科学出版社



全国高等教育自学考试指定教材辅导用书

高等教育自学考试同步辅导/同步训练

现代语言学

编 著 张 喆
郑淑娟

中国社会科学出版社

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

现代语言学/张喆,郑淑娟编著. —北京:中国社会科学出版社,2001.4

(全国高等教育自学考试指定教材辅导用书)

ISBN 7-5004-2999-1

I. 现… II. ①张… ②郑… III. 现代语言—概论
IV. H0-09

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2001)第 17372 号

责任编辑 冯春风

责任校对 肖红卫

封面设计 田 健

版式设计 李三三

出版发行 中国社会科学出版社

社 址 北京鼓楼西大街甲 158 号

邮 编 100720

电 话 010—84029453

传 真 010—64030272

网 址 <http://www.cass.net.cn>

经 销 新华书店

印 刷 北京化工出版社印刷厂

版 次 2001 年 4 月第 1 版

印 次 2001 年 4 月第 1 次印刷

开 本 880 × 1230 1/32

印 张 7

字 数 195 千字

印 数 1 ~ 5000 册

定 价 16.00 元

凡购买中国社会科学出版社图书,如有质量问题请与本社发行部联系调换
版权所有 侵权必究

说 明

本书是全国高等教育自学考试指定教材《现代语言学》(英语专业——本科段)的配套辅导用书。

本书的编写依据:

1. 全国高等教育自学考试指导委员会颁布的《现代语言学考试大纲》;

2. 全国高等教育自学考试指导委员会组编的指定教材《现代语言学》(何兆雄,梅德明主编,外语教学与研究出版社出版)。

本书特点:

1. 本书在编写过程中,严格以考试大纲为依据,以指定教材为基础。充分体现在“考查课程主体知识的同时,注重考查能力尤其是应用能力”的新的命题指导思想。

2. 全书完全依照指定教材的结构,以章为单位。每章设“要点提示”、“本章概述”、“补充练习”、“参考答案”四部分。

3. 两套模拟试题及综合练习题综合了考试大纲和教材对应试者的要求,可用于检验应试者的学习效果。

4. 书的最后附英汉术语对照表,供学员随时翻阅核查相关术语。

本书可供参加高等教育自学考试集体组织学习或个人自学使用,也可供相关专业人士参加其他考试使用。

编写高质量的全国高等教育自学考试辅导用书,是社会助学的一个重要环节。毫无疑问,这是一项艰难而有意义的工作,需要社会各方面的关怀与支持,使它在使用中不断提高和日臻完善。

编 者

2001年3月

目 录

Chapter 1 Introduction	(1)
要点提示	(1)
本章概述	(1)
补充练习	(6)
参考答案	(9)
Chapter 2 Phonology	(11)
要点提示	(11)
本章概述	(11)
补充练习	(24)
参考答案	(28)
Chapter 3 Morphology	(31)
要点提示	(31)
本章概述	(31)
补充练习	(36)
参考答案	(38)
Chapter 4 Syntax	(40)
要点提示	(40)
本章概述	(40)
补充练习	(49)
参考答案	(53)
Chapter 5 Semantics	(56)
要点提示	(56)
本章概述	(56)

补充练习	(67)
参考答案	(72)
Chapter 6 Pragmatics	(75)
要点提示	(75)
本章概述	(75)
补充练习	(83)
参考答案	(86)
Chapter 7 Historical Linguistics	(87)
要点提示	(87)
本章概述	(87)
补充练习	(101)
参考答案	(104)
Chapter 8 Sociolinguistics	(107)
要点提示	(107)
本章概述	(107)
补充练习	(113)
参考答案	(116)
Chapter 9 Psycholinguistics	(119)
要点提示	(119)
本章概述	(119)
补充练习	(124)
参考答案	(127)
Chapter 10 Language Acquisition	(129)
要点提示	(129)
本章概述	(129)
补充练习	(137)
参考答案	(140)
Model Test 1	(143)
参考答案	(146)
Model Test 2	(150)
参考答案	(154)

Synthetic Exercises	(157)
参考答案	(191)
An English-Chinese Glossary	(197)
参考书目	(213)

Chapter 1 Introduction

(第一章 绪 论)

要点提示

1. 主要内容：语言学定义、范畴；语言的描述性、规定性；历时性、共时性；口头语、书面语；语言与言语；语言能力与语言应用；语言定义；语言的五个特征。

2. 主要概念：语言学，语言，普通语言学，历时语言学，共时语言学，语言能力，语言应用。

本章概述

本章是全书的总论。主要讲述了什么是语言学、语言学的基本范畴与语言学有关的五对基本概念，语言的定义以及语言的五个甄别性特征。

语言学是对语言进行科学地研究的学科。它所研究的并不是某种特定的语言，而是人类所有的语言的共性。

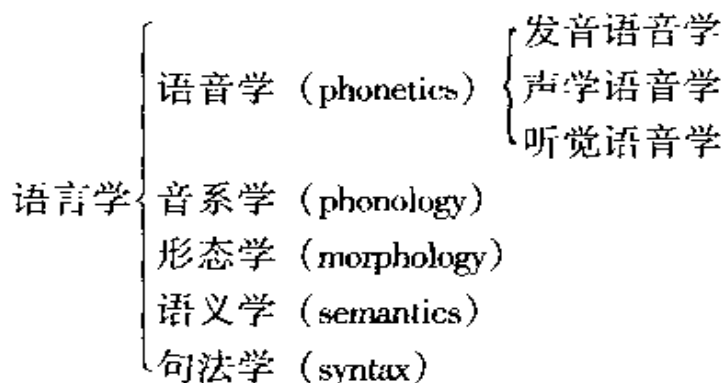
语言的科学研究是以对真实语言材料的研究为基础的，参照语言结构的某一理论来进行的。

语言学研究过程可被总结如下：

1. 仔细观察某些有共同点的真实语言材料并进行概括。
 2. 以这些概括为基础作出一些假设来解释这些语言现象。
 3. 通过进一步观察来检验这些初步的假设。
 4. 提出一个关于什么是语言及语言是如何运用的语言学理论。
- 把语言作为一个整体来研究的学科被称为普通语言学。它是语

言学研究中探索人类语言的普遍性质和规律的学科。

语言学的内部分支如下：



随着语言学的发展，各种研究语言与语言外因素关系的学科层出不穷。重要的学科有：语用学：研究语言与语言使用者和语言环境的关系；社会语言学：研究语言与社会文化的关系；心理语言学：研究语言的产生与理解，语言习得等问题；应用语言学：研究语言学习和语言教学等问题。其他相关的语言学分支还包括人类语言学 (Anthropological linguistics)、神经语言学 (Neurologic linguistics)、数理语言学 (Mathematical linguistics) 和计算语言学 (Computational linguistics)。

弄清语言学研究中的几对基本概念有助于我们进一步认识语言研究的对象和方法。本章共介绍了五对基本概念。

1. 规定性和描述性

如果一种语言研究是对人们实际所运用的语言进行描述和分析，那么这种研究就是描述性研究 (descriptive)；如果一种语言研究是人们如何正确使用语言作出规定，那么这种研究就是规定性的 (prescriptive)。语言学研究是描述性的而不是规定性的，这是现代语言学 and 传统语法的一个重要区别。现代语言学研究是客观的、科学的。语言学家的任务是描述人们实际所使用的语言，不管这种语言是否符合语法要求。

2. 共时性与历时性

对特定时期内的特定语言的研究是语言的共时性研究 (Synchronic study)。它研究的是语言的横切面。对于随时间变化而变化的语言的研究是语言的历时性研究 (Diachronic study)。它是一种纵

向研究。现代语言学研究主要是共时性研究。因为只有在对一种语言的各种状况都成功研究之后才能对语言历史发展过程中的变化进行研究。

3. 口头语和书面语

口头语 (speech) 和书面语 (writing) 是语言交际中的两大主要方式。现代语言学家认为口头语是语言交际的基本方式。书面语则是口头语的记录, 语言学研究的语料应从口头语中采集。这是因为: ①在任何人类社会口头语总是在书面语之前出现; ②现今仍有很多语言只有口头语形式而无书面语形式; ③就其作用而言, 口头语承载的任务要比书面语大得多。

4. 语言和言语

这一对概念是由瑞士语言学家 F·de 索绪尔提出来的。语言 (langue) 是一个语言社会的所有成员共同使用的抽象语言系统, 而言语 (parole) 指的则是对于这些抽象语言系统的实际运用。语言是抽象的, 是相对稳定的, 它是语言使用者必须遵守的规则; 言语则是具体的, 是因人而异, 千变万化的。因此语言学只能研究语言系统本身即语言而无法对言语进行研究。

5. 语言能力和语言运用

20 世纪 50 年代晚期, 美国语言学家 N·乔姆斯基提出这一对概念。语言能力 (language competence) 即理想的语言使用者的抽象语言知识; 语言应用 (language performance) 指的是语言使用者在语言交际中对这种抽象语言知识的实际运用。语言学家研究的应该是语言能力而非语言运用。

索绪尔的理论 with 乔姆斯基的理论的不同之处在于索绪尔是从语言的社会学角度来谈论语言; 而乔姆斯基是从语言的心理学角度来谈论语言的。

本章讲述的另一个问题是语言。

语言学家对语言作了不同定义, 本节中列举了几种。这些定义各有侧重, 但也都有一定的局限性。一个比较公认的语言定义是: 语言是人类用来交际的, 具有任意性的, 有声符号系统。

美国语言学家 C·霍凯特提出了语言的 12 种甄别性特征, 即人

类的语言交际与任何动物的“交际”系统的区别性特征。本文列举了五种：

1. 语言的任意性

语言是有任意性的，也就是说在语言的意义和语音之间没有逻辑关系。不同的语言可以用不同符号表达同一事物。莎士比亚的名言“一朵玫瑰不管它叫什么名字，闻起来都是一样香的”便是语言任意性的一个很好例证。但同时语言又不完全是任意性的，如一些象声词或合成语的形成就有一定的理据性。

2. 语言的创造性

语言的创造性是指人们能够利用语言中原有的规则来理解从未碰到过的语言符号的特征。这是人类语言的独一无二的特征，这也是人类语言与其他语言符号的最重要的区别。

3. 二重性

语言是由两种结构层次组成的系统。一个是语音，一个是意义。一定数量的语音组合成一个大的意义单位即词素，这些意义单位可组成无数个句子，这一特征也是语言的独有特征。

4. 移位性。

人类语言可以被用来指不在当时当地发生的事情，这就使得人类能够谈论许多事情而不受时空限制。大多数动物则只能交流直接情景中的信息。

5. 文化传递性

人类学习语言的能力有遗传基础，但任何详细的语言系统都必须通过教授和学习才能获得。这说明语言是具有文化传递性的，它不是靠人类的本能而获取的。而动物则是靠其基因来传递其呼叫系统的。

【名词解释（汉）】

1. 语言学 (Linguistics)：对语言进行科学地研究的学科。

2. 普通语言学 (General linguistics)：指把语言作为一个整体来研究的学科。

3. 共时语言学 (Synchronic linguistics)：对于给定时间内特定语

言的研究，被称为共时语言学。

4. 历时语言学 (Diachronic linguistics): 对于某种特定的、随时间变化而变化的语言的研究，被称为历时语言学。这种研究是一种对于语言的历史性的研究。

5. 语言 (与言语相对) (Langue): 指一个语言区域内所有成员所共同使用的抽象语言系统。

6. 言语 (Parole): 指抽象语言系统即语言的实际运用。

7. 语言能力 (Language competence): 是一个理想的语言使用者的语言知识，也就是他对语言的语音结构、词素和语法规则的知识。例如，转化生成语法。

8. 语言运用 (Language performance): 指理想的语言使用者的语言知识在实际的语言交际中的运用。

9. 语言 (Language): 人类用来交际的具有任意性的有声符号系统。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Linguistics (语言学): It is generally defined as the scientific study of language.

2. General linguistics (普通语言学): The study of language as a whole is often called general linguistics.

3. Synchronic linguistics (共时语言学): The study of a given language at a given time.

4. Diachronic linguistics (历时语言学): The study of language change through time. A diachronic study of language is a historical study, which studies the historical development of language over a period of time.

5. Langue (语言): The abstract linguistic system shared by all members of a speech community.

6. Parole (言语): The realization of langue in actual use.

7. Language competence (语言能力): The ideal user's knowledge of rules of his language, that is, of its sound structure, its words and its grammatical rules. A transformational - generative grammar is a model of

language competence.

8. Language performance (语言运用): The actual realization of the ideal language user's knowledge of the rules of his language in utterances. It means the actual saying of something, the act of speech itself.

9. Language (语言): A system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication.

补充练习

I. Indicate the following statements true or false.

1. Linguistics studies one specific language. ()
2. Linguists must be able to speak several languages in order to study them. ()
3. Modern linguistics is mostly descriptive because it sets rules for language users to follow. ()
4. Linguists are judges, they know what is right and what is wrong about language. ()
5. When we say synchronic descriptions of a language are prior to diachronic descriptions, we mean in describing one state of the language, some knowledge of its previous state is unnecessary. ()
6. In linguistics study, linguists first work out a theory about language structure, then, test it with language facts. ()
7. Language is arbitrary by nature but it is not entirely arbitrary. ()
8. Animals are born with the capacity to produce the set of calls peculiar to their species, while human beings haven't this genetic basis. ()
9. No nonhuman communication system is arbitrary. ()
10. A linguist should be as objective as possible in his description and analysis of language facts. ()

II .Fill in each of the following blanks with one word.

- 1.Linguistics is generally defined as the scientific study of _____ .
- 2.Language is a system of _____ used for human communication .
- 3.In professional usage, the _____ is a scholar who studies language objectively .
- 4.If a linguistic study describes and analyses the language people actually use, it is said to be _____. If it aims to lay down rules for correct behavior it is said to be _____ .
- 5.Charles Hockett specified _____ design features of human language . The most important features are _____ .
- 6.Language is a system which consists of two sets of structures, one of _____ and the other of _____ .
- 7.Language can refer to contexts removed from the immediate situations of the speaker, that means language has the feature of _____ .
8. “A rose by any other name would smell as sweet”. This sentence means that language has the feature of _____ .
- 9.Writing is a secondary language form based upon _____ .
- 10.The reason why an English speaker and a Chinese speaker are not mutually intelligible is because language is culturally _____ .

III .In each of the following questions, there are four choices. Decide which one would be the best answer to the question or best complete the sentence.

1. A scientific study of language is based on _____ .
A.close observation of pronunciation
B.systematic investigation of data
C.careful study of language structure
D.some basic theories
2. Language is _____ .

- A. instinctive B. non – instinctive
C. static D. genetically transmitted
3. The study of _____ used in linguistic community led to establishment of a branch of linguistics called phonetics.
A. sounds B. phoneme
C. morpheme D. allomorpheme
4. The core of linguistics excludes _____.
A. semantics B. morphology
C. phonetics D. psycholinguistics
5. The distinction between langue and parole was made by _____.
A. N. Chomsky B. F. de. Saussure
C. Charles Hockett D. Sir William Jones
6. The ideal user's knowledge of the rules of his language is the language _____.
A. competence B. performance
C. acquisition D. genetical transmission
7. By _____ it is meant that something represents something else.
A. sound B. speech
C. utterance D. symbol
8. The abstract linguistic system shared by all the members of a speech community is _____.
A. parole B. performance
C. langue D. speech
9. The study of the emergence of a new teaching approach or method belongs to the _____ study.
A. pragmatics B. sociolinguistics
C. applied linguistics D. syntax
10. The fact that the ability to speak a language is transmitted from generation to generation through teaching and learning rather than by instinct is usually referred to as _____.
A. cultural transmission B. language acquisition

C. competence

D. performance

IV. Answer the following questions in English.

1. What makes modern linguistics different from traditional grammar?

2. Why do we say language is arbitrary?

参考答案

I .

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. F | 2. F | 3. F | 4. F | 5. F |
| 6. F | 7. T | 8. F | 9. T | 10. T |

II .

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. language | 2. arbitrary vocal symbols |
| 3. linguist | 4. descriptive prescriptive |
| 5. arbitrariness, productivity, duality, displacement, culture transmission | |
| 6. sound meaning | 7. displacement |
| 8. arbitrariness | 9. speech |
| 10. transmitted. | |

III .

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. B | 2. B | 3. A | 4. D | 5. B |
| 6. A | 7. D | 8. C | 9. C | 10. A |

IV .

1. Modern linguistics is descriptive. Its investigations are based on authentic and mainly spoken language data. Traditional grammar is prescriptive. It is based on "high" written language.

2. Language is arbitrary in the sense that there is no intrinsic connection between the sounds that people use and the objects to which these

sounds refer. The fact that different languages have different words for the same object is a good illustration of the arbitrary nature of language. It is only our tacit agreement of utterance and concept at work and not any innate relationship bound up in the utterance. A typical example to illustrate the “arbitrariness” of language is “a rose by any other name would smell as sweet”.

Chapter 2 Phonology

(第二章 音 系 学)

要点提示

1. 主要内容：发音器官，宽、严式标音法，元音、辅音分类，语音、音位、音位变体、音位对立、互补分布、几条音系规则、超切分特征。

2. 主要概念：语音学、清音、浊音、宽式标音法、严式标音法、IPA（国际标准音标）、元音、辅音、音位学、音位、音位变体、语音最小对立体、超切分特征。

本章概述

本章学习的中心是语音，包括语音学（Phonetics）和音系学（Phonology）两大部分。

语言的交际媒介主要有两种：声音与文字。其中声音是更为基本的，文字则是有声语言的记录。在日常交际中，就数量而言，声音传递的信息数量更多一些。因此，对语言学家来说，声音研究要比文字研究更重要。他们用来研究分析的真实语言材料大多是取自于日常用语的，语言学家研究的语音数量是有限的。这些数目有限的一组语音构成了语言的声音媒介。

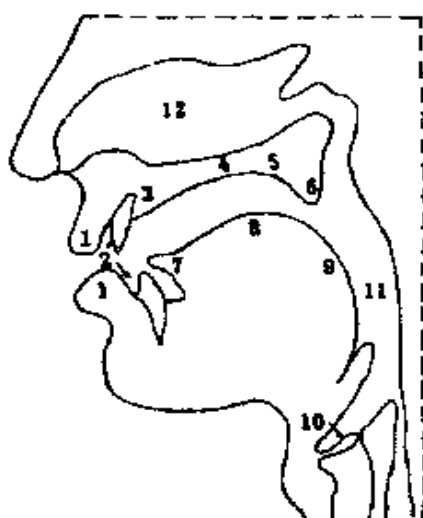
（一）语音学。语音学研究的对象是语言的声音媒介，即人类语言中所使用的全部语音。语音学主要有三个分支：发音语音学（Articulatory phonetics）：从说话者角度出发，研究语言使用者如何使用其发音器官来发音的；听觉语言学（Auditory phonetics）：从听

话者角度出发，研究语音是如何被听话者所感知的；声学语音学 (Acoustic phonetics)：通过观察声波来研究语音从口到耳的传播过程中的物理特征。在这三个语音学研究中，发音语音学是语言学家最为关注的学科。

语言学家通过对频谱仪记录下来的声波的研究发现，语音的同·性只是一种理论上的理想状况而已，实际上，人类语言最多只是接近于这一状态。

人类的发音器官包含在下列三个腔中：咽腔 (pharyngeal cavity)，口腔 (oral cavity) 和鼻腔 (nazal cavity) 中。

下面是发音器官图

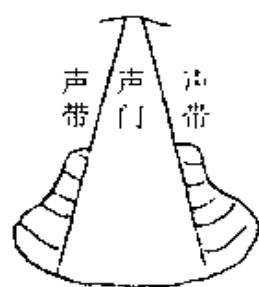


- | | | |
|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. 上下唇 | 2. 上下齿 | 3. 齿龈 |
| 4. 硬腭 | 5. 软腭 | 6. 小舌 |
| 7. 舌尖 | 8. 舌面 | 9. 舌根 |
| 10. 声带 | 11. 咽腔 | 12. 鼻腔 |

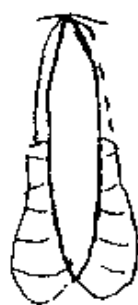
气流从肺部发出后，流经气管，通向声门。声门是位于喉结当中的两片很小的薄膜，即声带之间的一个骨状结构，这是声音从肺部发出后可能被改变的第一个部位。整个声门张开，气流自由通过而不引起声带振动时发出的音为清音，英语中的一些辅音为清音；声门关闭，中间只有一条窄缝，气流通过时引起声带振动，这种由

于声带振动而发出的音叫做浊音，英语中所有元音和一些辅音是浊音。声带振动的速度决定音高。

气流可能受到最大改变的发音器官是口腔，而舌头则是这一腔中最为灵活的部位。如舌根与软腭形成 [k]、[g] 音；舌前部与硬腭间的狭窄空隙可形成 [j] 音；舌尖与齿龈间对气流的阻挡形成 [t]、[d] 音。上齿与下唇可形成 [f]、[v] 音；双唇可形成 [p]、[b] 音；上齿与舌尖形成的对气流的部分阻挡可形成 [θ]、[ð] 音。



声门打开



声门关闭并振动

发音器官的三个腔互相连接，咽腔从喉头的上部延伸到鼻腔的后部，前连口腔。当软腭抬起时，气流从口腔通过，这时发出的音不是鼻音，当软腭和小舌下垂，关闭口腔通道，气流由鼻腔通过，这时发出的音为鼻音。英语中有三个鼻音 [m]、[n]、[ŋ]，元音和大多数辅音为口腔音。

十九世纪末以来，发音语音学开始在西方社会取得真正进步。学者们开始感到一套标准化的、国际公认的音标体系的需要，于是国际音标开始形成 (IPA)。它是用来表示任何一种语言中单词发音的符号系统，由字母和变音符号 (diacritics) 组成。其基本原则是一个语音一个符号，一个符号代表一个音。用一个符号表示一个语音的标音法叫做宽式标音法；这种标音法常见于词典和教科书中，对一般学英语的人来说，掌握宽式标音法已经足够了。在宽式标音的基础上，再用变音符号来表示同一语音在不同的语音环境下不同发音的标音法叫严式标音法。

对于语音学家这样专门研究语音的人来说，严式标音法是很有必要的。例如：button 和 ten 两词中，鼻音 [n] 的发音是不一样

的, button [bʌtn] 鼻音 [n] 与它前面的辅音 [t] 形成一个音节, 这种特殊的鼻音叫做“音节鼻音”, 在窄式标音中表示为 [n̩]; 又如, 辅音 [p] 在 pit 和 spit 两词中读音也是不一样的, 在 pit 中 [p] 音发出的气流强大而在 spit 中 [p] 的发音多少被限制了一些, 因此 pit [p] 被称为送气音, 而 spit 中 [p] 被称为非送气音。在宽式标音中, 这种区别是不显示出来的, 而在严式标音中, 一个小“h”被用来指示送气, 因此 pit 可以被标为 [pʰɪt], spit 可以被标为 [spɪt]; 再如 leaf 与 feel、health 中 [l] 的差别: leaf 中的清音 [l] 直接用 [l] 表示, 而在 feel 中 [l] 为暗音, 用 [f] 表示, health 中 [l] 为齿音用 [l̪] 表示。

英语语音的分类

1. 在发音过程中, 气流在声道中受到阻碍, 这时发出的音被称为辅音; 在发音过程中, 发音器官并不彼此靠近, 气流通过声道时不受任何阻碍, 此时发出的音为元音

(一) 辅音的分类

根据气流在声道中的受阻方式不同和受阻部位不同, 辅音可分为以下几类。

1. 根据发音方式, 辅音可分为 6 类。

(1) 爆破音 (stops): 发音时, 气流在声道中完全受阻, 然后被突然释放, 受阻气流冲出而形成的音被称为爆破音。英语中有三对爆破音 [b] [p], [t] [d], [k] [g]。

(2) 擦音 (fricatives): 发音时, 两个发音器官接近, 但不完全闭合而封死气流, 使气流通过缝隙状的阻碍时发出摩擦而形成的音被称为擦音。英语中擦音有 [f]、[v]、[s]、[z]、[θ]、[ð]、[ʃ]、[ʒ]、[h]。

(3) 塞擦音 (affricates): 发音时, 前半部分发音与发爆破音相似, 气流完全受阻, 后半部分发音与发擦音相似, 气流被逐渐释放, 产生摩擦而形成的音被称为摩擦音。英语中的塞擦音有两个 [tʃ] 和 [dʒ]。

(4) 流音 (liquids): 发音时, 舌部在口腔内形成部分封闭, 使来自肺部的气流受阻, 但还不至于引起摩擦, 气流可从舌的舌尖或

两侧或口腔上部逸出而形成的音被称为流音。英语中有两个流音 [r] 和 [l]。[l] 也被称为旁流音或边音，发此音时，舌面稍成凹起状，气流由舌两侧逸出；另一个流音 [r] 也被称为卷舌音，发此音时，舌尖后卷，多以其反面抵住硬腭前部，形成短暂阻碍，发出的连续的触音。

(5) 鼻音 (nasals): 发这类辅音时，软腭下垂，完全阻塞口腔，气流自由通过鼻腔。根据口腔闭合的部位，鼻音有 3 个 [m]、[n]、[ŋ]。

(6) 滑音 (glides): 有时也被称为半元音，英语中有两个滑音 [j]、[w]。两音都是浊音，其发音方式与 [u]、[i] 方式相同，但因双唇或舌与硬腭间的对气流局部性阻碍而引起一些较微的噪音而形成。

2. 按照发音部位，英语辅音可被分为 7 类。

(1) 双唇音 (bilabial): 双唇并拢形成阻挡，再突然打开，释放气流而形成的音。英语中有 4 个: [b]、[p]、[w]、[m]。

(2) 唇齿音 (labiodental): 通过上齿和下唇接触气流从唇齿间挤出而发出的音。英语中有两个唇齿音 [f]、[v]。

(3) 齿音 (dental): 舌尖抵住上齿，气流形成阻碍所形成的音。英语中齿音有两个: [θ]、[ð]。

(4) 齿龈音 (alveolar): 舌尖抵住上齿龈时、气流形成阻碍所发出的音。英语中齿龈音有 7 个: [t]、[d]、[n]、[l]、[s]、[z]、[r]。

(5) 腭音 (palatal): 舌前部向硬腭抬起而引起气流阻塞或舌而向齿龈后部突起而引起气流受阻所发出的辅音。英语中有 5 个: [tʃ]、[dʒ]、[j]、[ʃ]、[ʒ]。

(6) 软腭音 (velar): 舌后背向上隆起、接触软腭，形成气流阻碍而形成的音。英语中有 3 个软腭音 [k]、[g]、[ŋ]。

(7) 喉音 (glottal): 指声带暂时性闭合所发出的辅音。英语中喉音 1 个 [h]，也叫声门音。

通过上述两种方式的分类，我们可以对每个辅音的语音特征做出描述，反之，我们也可以根据所给的语音特征来确定一个辅音。

辅音分类表

按发音部位 按发音方式		双唇音	唇齿音	齿音	齿龈音	腭音	软腭音	喉音
爆破音	清辅音	p			t		k	
	浊辅音	b			d		g	
擦音	清辅音		f	θ	s			h
	浊辅音		v	ð	z			
塞擦音	清辅音				(tʃ)	tʃ		
	浊辅音				(dʒ)	dʒ		
鼻音	浊辅音	m			n		ŋ	
流音	浊辅音				l, r			
滑音	浊辅音	w				j		

(二) 英语元音的分类

元音可分为单元音和双元音两大类，单元音 12 个，双元音 8 个。

单元音的分类标准如下：

1. 根据舌头的部位，单元音可分为前元音、中元音和后元音。

(1) 前元音：发音时舌头的最高点的位置都是在舌头的前部。前元音有 [i:]、[ɪ]、[e]、[æ]、[a]。

(2) 中元音：发音时舌头的中部处于最高位置。中元音有 [ɜ:]、[ə]、[ʌ]。

(3) 后元音：发音时舌头的最高点的位置都是在舌头的后部。后元音有 [u:]、[ʊ]、[ɔ:]、[ɑ:]、[u]。

2. 根据口腔开合和升降程度，单元音可分为：

(1) 闭元音：[i:]、[ɪ]、[u:]、[ʊ]，发音时口腔闭拢，舌头抬高，气流通道小。

(2) 开元音：[æ]、[ɑ]、[ʌ]、[ɔ]、[ɑ:]，发音时口腔相对较大，舌头降低，气流通道较大。

(3) 半开元音：[ə]、[ɜ:]。

(4) 半闭元音：[ɜ:]、[e]。

3. 根据唇的形状

(1) 圆唇音：后元音中除〔ɑ〕外均为圆唇音。

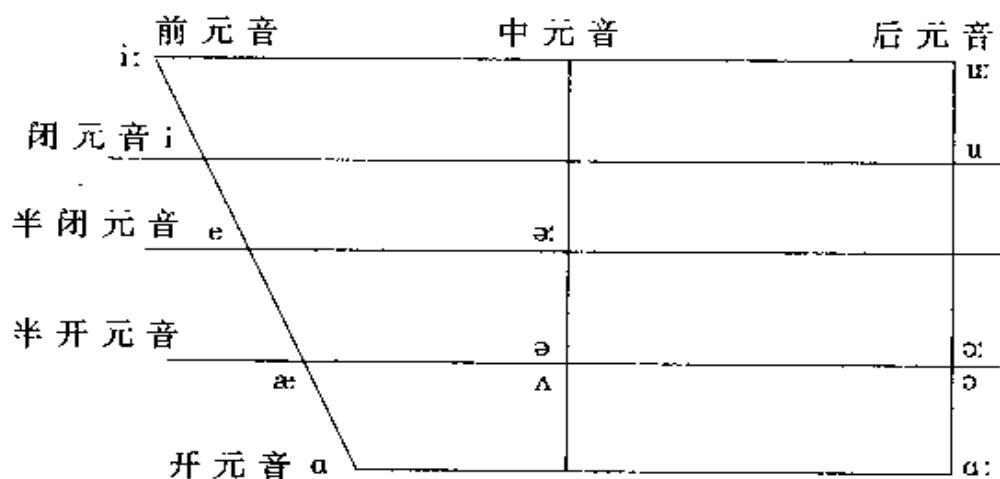
(2) 非圆唇音：前元音和中元音均为非圆唇音，〔ɑ〕也属于非圆唇音。

4. 根据元音长度，单元音可分为长元音和短元音。所有有冒号的音都是长元音，否则为短元音。

5. 根据元音的松紧程度，单元音还可分为松元音和紧元音。长元音都是紧元音，短元音都是松元音。

根据上述分类标准，我们可以具体描述一个元音。如元音〔e〕可以被描述为前元音、半闭元音、非圆唇音、短元音、松元音。

下面是元音发音部位图



双元音是两个单元音的组合，发音时由一个元音滑向另一个元音。双元音有 8 个：〔aɪ〕、〔aʊ〕、〔ɔɪ〕、〔iə〕、〔eə〕、〔uə〕、〔eɪ〕。

本章的另一大问题是音系学 (Phonology)

语音学和音位学都是以语言为研究对象的学科，但研究的角度不同。语音学从语音的自然角度出发，研究人类所有语言的语音，旨在对语音进行描述和分类；而音系学则是从语音的功能角度研究语音，它研究的重点是特定语言的语音体系，语音表达意义的作用。因此，音系学家对不引起意义区别的语音间的细微差别并不关注。

(一) 音素、音位、音位变体

音素是语音学研究的单位，是一个个具体的声音。它是从语音的自然性质角度进行分析而得出来的最小单位，是人们的发音器官所能发出的最小语音片段。如我们在发下列词 *feel*、*leaf*、*top*、*stop* 的音时，需要发以下的音 [i:]、[f]、[l]、[t]、[s]、[tʰ]、[ɔ]，所有这些音都叫做音素 (phone)。

每个人发音器官的形状和大小都不可能绝对一样，所以每个人的发音都有自己的特点，但并不妨害听者的理解。也就是说音素并不能区别各词的意义，如 [stʰɒp] 与 [stop] 的意义是一样的。

音位则是音系学的研究单位，是一个抽象概念，每一个音位是一组语音特征的集合体，具有区别意义的作用。音位的数量要比音素的数量少，在英语中，清音 [l] 和暗音 [ɫ] 并不会引起意义上的差别。因此它们不是音位，而 [t] 和 [p] 则是不同的音位。

不同音素在不同语音环境中能够代表同一个音位，那么这些音素被称为这个音位的变体。如清音 [l] 和暗音 [ɫ] 都可被称为音位 /l/ 的音位变体（传统上音素用方括号来表示 []，而音位则用斜线表示 //）。这些音位的不同变体都是互补分布的。每个变体的出现是受一定位置制约的，例如，清音爆破音 /p/ 在首字母发音 [s] 之后时，读音为非送气音 [p] 即为音位 /p/ 的一个变体。

一个音位包含的区别于其他音位的特征被称为音位的区别性特征。不同语言有不同的音位区别性特征，如：在英语中送气、不送气并不能区别意义，而在汉语中，*pá*（怕）与 *bà*（爸）之间的区别又的确是由于送气与否来区别的。“b”在英语应表示为非送气音 [p]；p 则表示为送气音 [pʰ]。

音位对立指不同音位之间的关系，它们可以出现在不同语音组合中的同一位置，产生意义差别。如 *robe* 和 *rope* 中的 /p/ 和 /b/；互补分布指的是音位与音位变体之间的关系，同一个音位的不同变体在语音组合中永远不会出现在相同位置上，它们没有区别意义的作用。如 [p] 和 [pʰ] 只能出现在不同的语音环境下，*spot* 中 [p] 应为不送气的 [p]；而在 *pot* 中 [p] 则为送气的 [pʰ]。又如 [l] 与 [ɫ] 也是互补分布的。

对音位对立对的分析对研究语言具有重要意义。如果两个语音组合除了出现在同一位置上的一个音之外其余都相同,那么这两个语音组合被称为最小对立对。因此,在英语中, pill 和 bill; bill 和 till; till 和 kill 都是最小对立对 (minimal pair)。 $/p/$ 、 $/b/$ 、 $/t/$ 、 $/k/$ 都是英语中的音位,它们组成一个最小对立集,这个最小对立集中只有首字母发音不同而其他字母发音都相同。元音也同样可以形成最小对立集。如 beat、bat、bit、bet、but、bait、boat、bite、boot 中,只有一个元音发音不同,其余字母的发音都相同,所以这些语音组合也形成了一个最小对立集。所有这些元音 $/i:/$ 、 $/i/$ 、 $/e/$ 、 $/æ/$ 、 $/u:/$ 、 $/ʌ/$ 、 $/ai/$ 、 $/ei/$ 、 $/əu/$ 都是英语中的音位。

音系学规则

音系学规则具有语言特定性,不同语言有不同的音系规则,一种语言的音系规则未必适用于另一种语言。就英语而言,应遵循如下音系规则:

1. 序列规则 (Sequential rule)

英语中单词不是杂乱无章的,而是以一定顺序排列的。音位系统决定了哪些音位放在词首、哪些音位放在词尾。例如:若一个单词以 $[l]$ 或 $[r]$ 开头的话,那么其后出现的音位肯定是一个元音而不可能是辅音。又如:在 $[tʃ]$ 、 $[dʒ]$ 两个塞擦音和 $[s]$ 、 $[z]$ 、 $[ʃ]$ 、 $[ʒ]$ 等咝音后不能再加另一个咝音。这就解释了为什么在名词变复数和动词的第三人称单数的一般现在时的时候要多加一个 $[i]$ 音。如 teach $[ti:tʃ] \rightarrow$ teaches $[ti:tʃiz]$, kiss $[kis] \rightarrow$ $[ˈkɪsɪz]$; 再如:当三个辅音组成音丛出现在词首时,其音位顺序中第一个音位必须是 $/s/$; 第二个音位必须是 $/p/$ 、 $/t/$ 或 $/k/$; 第三个音位必须是 $/l/$ 、 $/r/$ 或 $/w/$, 如单词 square $[skw]$ 、spring $[spr]$ 、strict $[str]$ 等。

2. 同化规则 (Assimilation rule)

英语中一个音通过吸收相邻音的特点,变得与其相似,这就是同化规则。它常常是由发音过程和生理过程引起的,说话时增加了发音的方便。例如,我们在发 flee、peep 中的 $[i:]$ 音时发非鼻音化的 $[i:]$ 的,而当我们在发 bean、green 中 $[i:]$ 的音时,舌部等

发音器官已经准备好发 [n] 的音了，实际上我们所发的 [ɪ] 已经被鼻音化了。又如 incorrect 中的齿龈鼻音 [n] 在实际中被发成了软腭鼻音 [ŋ] 了，这是由于 [n] 后跟的是一个辅音 [k] 的原故。

3. 省略规则 (Deletionrule)

一个音的所有语音特征都与它所处的语音环境中的其他语音特征同化了，由此这个音也就消失了，虽然在拼写上，这个音所代表的字母还存在着。如在发 sign, design 时 /g/ 的音已经不存在了。这一规则可被写为当 [g] 出现在一个最终的鼻辅音前时可被省略，因此，像 signature、resignation 这样 [g] 并非出现在位于结尾的 [n] 前的词 [g] 音是不能省略的。

超切分特征 (Suprasegmental features)

超切分特征指切分即单音层面以上的音系特征。音位是语言中首要的语音材料，语言中各种大小不同的表义单位（语素、词、词组）的物质表现形式都是由音位组成的。除音位外，语言的语音材料还包括重音、声调和语调，它们是音节、单词和句子的语音外壳。

(1) 重音：根据上下文意思，重音可分为两种 (1) 单词重音；(2) 句子重音。

重音是一个相对概念，只有有两个或两个以上音节的单词才有单词重音而言；重音位置随单词不同而不同。同一个单词或词组不同位置的重音可引起词性或意义的变化，如 'import、'increase 均为名词，而 im'port、in'crease 则为动词；又如 'blackbird 是一种乌鸫鸟，而 black'bird 则指任何一种黑色的鸟；再如 a ,sleeping 'baby 指的是一个正睡觉的婴儿，而 a'sleeping car 则指的是一节卧铺车厢。就句子而言，一般来说，名词、动词、形容词、副词、指示代词要重读，但有时为了达到某一效果，句子的其他成分也可以重读。

(2) 声调是指音高变化。音高也能像音位一样区分不同意义，因此声调也是超切分特征的一种。汉语是一种音调语言，有 4 种音调即阴平、阳平、上声、去声。

(3) 语调

英语中有四种语调，升调、降升调、升降调和降调。例如同一

句话That's not the book he wants. 按照不同语调读出来, 意义也不一样。按降调读时是一个陈述句, “那不是他想要的书”; 按升调读时是一个疑问句, 表示说话者并不确定那本书是不是他想要的书; 按降升调读时, 表示除这本书外, 他可能还想要别的什么。

同样, 句子“I can't eat anything”, 在读为降调时, 意思与“I can eat nothing”(我什么也不能吃)相同; 当读为降升调时, 它的深层含义则变为“我并非所有东西都不能吃, 有些特殊的东西我还是能吃的”。

用不同的语调读同一个句子时, 所产生的含义是不同的。例如, 句子“John did not come because of Mary”可以被看做是单语调单位, 也可被看作是两种语调单位的组合体。当以一种语调来读时, 状语结构“because of Mary”被看作是整个结构的一个组成部分, 所以这个短语处于“not”所表示的否定意义范围之内。因此这句话的意思可以解释为 John came, but it was not for Mary (约翰来了, 但并非为玛丽而来)。当这个句子被以两种语调读时, 在 John did not come 和 because of Mary 之间停顿一下, 此时单词“not”只否定了动词 come, 而未否定“because of mary”。因此, 这句话可以解释为 John did not come, and this was because of mary (约翰没来, 这是因为玛丽的缘故)。

句子的语调能够通过核心安放的方法使一个句子的某一部分显得尤其突出。句子核心指的是一个语调单位中主要的音高变化, 在一个语调单位中, 核心通常是落在最后一个重读音节上的。例如, 句子“He likes swimming in the lake after sunset”中, 最后一个重读音节为“sun”, 所以它通常被读为:

He 'likes 'swimming in the 'lake after 'sunset.

上面句子读法是指当句子用降调读时的读法;

如果用声调读时, 音高中的升调也是放在最后一个重读音节上“sun”。

He'likes'swimming in the 'lake after ,sunset.

我们还可以通过转换核心的方法使其中的一部分突出, 例如我们可以把核心转移到“swimming”这个词上:

He 'likes 'swimming in the ,lake after ,sunset. 这样，我们就可以重点强调一下他在日落后喜欢做的是 swimming（游泳）而不是其他活动。

我们甚至还可以把重音放在通常我们不大会强调的词上。例如“after”。

He 'likes 'swimming in the 'lake 'after ,sunset.

这时强调的是日落后“After”而非日落前“Before”。

【名词解释（汉）】

1. 语音学 (Phonetics): 研究语言的声音媒介的学科，即研究人类语言中所使用的全部语音的学科。

2. 清音 (Voiceless): 发音时，整个声带张开，气流自由通过而不引起振动，这时发出的音为清音。

3. 浊音 (Voicing): 声带振动时发出的音为浊音。

4. 宽式标音法 (Broad transcription): 用一个符号表示一个语音的标音法叫做宽式标音法。

5. 严式标音法 (Narrow transcription): 在宽式标音的基础上，再加上变音符号来表示同一语音在不同语音环境中的不同发音的标音法。

6. 国际音标 (IPA): 用来表示任何一种语言中单词发音的符号系统，由字母和变音符号组成，其基本原则是一个语音一个符号，一个符号代表一个音。

7. 元音 (Vowel): 在发音过程中，发音器官并不彼此靠近，气流通过声道时，不受任何阻碍，此时发出的音为元音。

8. 辅音 (Consonant): 在发音过程中，气流在声道中受到阻碍，这时发出的音为辅音。

9. 音系学 (Phonology): 研究语音系统的学科，即研究一种语言里的具有区别性的语音系统和模式的学科。

10. 音位 (Phoneme): 音位学研究的最小单位，由一系列区别性语音特征构成，它是一个区别性语音特征集。

11. 音位变体 (Allophone): 不同音素在不同语音环境中能够代

表同一个音位，那么这些音素被称为这个音位的变体。

12. 音素 (Phone): 语音学研究的最小单位是人们的发音器官所能发出的最小语音片断。

13. 最小对立对 (Minimal pair): 如果两个语音组合除了出现在同一位置上的音素不同外，其他的音都相同，那么这两个语音组合形成一对最小对立对。

14. 超切分特征 (Suprasegmental features): 指切分即单音层面上的音系特征。它主要包括重音、声调、语调。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Phonetics (语音学): The study of the phonic medium of language; it is concerned with all the sounds that occur in the world's language.

2. Voiceless (清音): When the vocal cords are drawn wide apart, letting air go through without causing vibration, the sounds produced in such a condition are called voiceless sounds.

3. Voicing (辅音): Sounds produced while the vocal cords are vibrating are called voiced sounds.

4. Broad transcription (宽式标音法): The transcription of speech sounds with letter symbols only.

5. Narrow transcription (严式标音法): The transcription of speech sounds with letter symbols and the diacritics.

6. IPA (国际音标): A standardized and internationally accepted system of phonic transcription, its basic principle is using a different letter for each distinguishable speech sound.

7. Vowel (元音). The sounds in the production of which no articulators come very close together and the air stream passes through the vocal tract without obstruction are called vowels.

8. Consonants (辅音): The sounds in the production of which there is an obstruction of the air stream at some point of the vocal tract are called consonants.

9. Phonology (音系学): The study of sound system—the inventory of distinctive sounds that occur in a language and the patterns into which they fall.

10. Phoneme (音位): The basic unit in phonology. It is a collection of distinctive phonetic features.

11. Allophones (音位变体): Different phones which can represent a phoneme in different environments are called the allophones of that phoneme.

12. Phone (音素): A phonetic unit or segment. It does not necessarily distinguish meaning. It is a speech sound we use when speaking a language.

13. Minimal pair (最小对立对): When two different forms are identical in every way except for one sound segment which occurs in the same place in the strings, the two words are said to form a minimal pair.

14. Suprasegmental features (超切分特征): The phonemic features that occur above the level of the segments are called suprasegmental features. The main suprasegmental features include stress, intonation and tone.

补充练习

I. Indicate the following statements true or false.

1. Of the two media of language, speech is more basic than writing. ()
2. The unlimited range of sounds which are meaningful in human communication and of interest to linguistic studies are the phonic medium of language. ()
3. Phonetics studies the phonic medium of a certain language. ()
4. Only highly trained phoneticians can produce the same speech sounds. ()

5. The vowel [e] can be described as front, semi-open and unrounded. ()

6. The long vowels are all tense vowels and the short vowels are all lax vowels. ()

7. Phonology aims to discover how speech sounds in all human languages form patterns and how these sounds are used to convey meaning in linguistic communication. ()

8. Phoneticians found that a dark [ɫ] often occurs at the end of a word after a vowel or before a consonant and a clear [l] often occurs after a consonant. ()

9. In English, pill and bill are a minimal pair, and so are pill and till, pin and ping. ()

10. The phoneme /p/ and /b/ can occur in the same environments and they distinguish meaning, therefore they're in phonetic complementary distribution. ()

11. The sequential rules in English can apply to all the other languages. For example, the velar nasal [ŋ] never occurs in initial position in English nor in Chinese. ()

12. Nasalization is not a phonological feature in English, that is, it does not distinguish meaning. ()

II. Fill in each of the following blanks with one word.

1. The natural or primary medium of human language is _____ for some obvious reasons.

2. _____ and _____ are the two media by natural languages as vehicles for communication.

3. Phonetics looks at sounds from _____ distinct, but related point of view.

4. Of the three branches of phonetics, the longest established and until recently the most highly developed is _____.

5. _____ phoneticians try to describe the physical properties of the

stream of sounds which a speaker issues.

6. _____ is made up of continuous bursts of sounds.

7. The articulatory apparatus of a human being are contained in three important cavities. They are _____.

8. The first point where sound modification may occur is _____.

9. Vowels may be distinguished as _____.

10. If, in making a vowel sound, the organs of speech remain in one position without moving to another, the result is a _____. If the organs of speech start in the position for one vowel and then immediately glide to the position of another, the result is a _____.

11. All English sound except [m], [n], [ŋ] are made with the palate _____.

12. IPA indicates _____.

13. An initial classification will divide the speech sounds into two broad categories: _____ and _____.

14. The basic unit in phonology is _____.

15. Conventionally, a phoneme is put in _____ while phones are put in _____.

16. An aspirated p; an unaspirated p and an unreleased p are _____ of the p _____.

17. The allophones of the same phoneme are said to be in _____ distribution.

18. In English, there are two kinds of stress. They are _____ and _____.

19. When pitch, stress and sound length are tied to the sentence rather than the word in isolation, they are collectively known as _____.

20. English has 4 basic types of intonations, they are _____, _____, _____, _____.

III .In each of the following questions, there are four choices. Decide which one would be the best answer to the questions or best complete the sentence.

1. The principal source of the modifications of the air stream is _____ .
A. tongue B. palate
C. teeth D. velum
2. The pharynx refers to the space of cavity between the larynx and the end of the _____.
A. tongue B. hard palate
C. soft palate D. vocal cords
3. A sound produced when the vocal cords are drawn wide apart, letting air go through without causing vibration is said to be _____.
A. resonant B. voiceless
C. voiced D. vowel
4. The obstruction created between the tip of the tongue and the alveolar ridge results in the sound _____.
A. [t] and [d] B. [k] and [g]
C. [p] and [b] D. [θ] and [ŋ]
5. _____ are sounds articulated by the back of the tongue against the soft palate.
A. palatals B. dentals
C. alveolar D. velars
6. The sounds [ʃ], [ʒ] are the results of raising the front of the tongue towards the _____.
A. hard palate B. soft palate
C. uvula D. velar
7. When the obstruction, complete at first, is released slowly with the friction resulting from partial obstruction, the sounds thus produced are _____.
A. affricates B. fricatives

- C. liquids D. alveolar
8. In the case of vowel sounds, the ____ and the mouth cavities are changed by the shape and position of the tongue and lips.
A. nose B. larynx
C. pharynx D. uvular
9. The phoneme is an abstract _____ unit.
A. phonic B. phonological
C. phonetic D. grammatical
10. The sound k and g are separate _____.
A. allophones B. phonemes
C. morphemes D. allomorphs

IV. Answer the following questions in English.

1. What is the difference between a monophthong and a diphthong?
2. How can consonants be classified?
3. Explain with examples how broad transcription and narrow transcription differ?

参考答案

I.

1. T 2. F 3. F 4. F 5. F 6. T
7. F 8. F 9. T 10. F 11. F 12. T

II.

1. sound 2. Speech, writing 3. three
4. articulatory phonetics
5. Acoustic
6. Speech
7. the pharyngeal cavity, the oral cavity, the nasal cavity
8. glottis

9. front, central, back
10. monophthong, diphthong
11. raised
12. International Phonetic Alphabet
13. vowels, consonants
14. phoneme
15. slashes square brackets
16. allophones phoneme
17. complementary
18. word stress sentence stress
19. intonation
20. the falling tone, the rising tone, the fall – rise tone, the rise – fall tone

III.

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. A | 2. C | 3. B | 4. A | 5. D |
| 6. A | 7. A | 8. C | 9. B | 10. B |

IV.

1. A monophthong is one for which the organs of speech remain in a given position for a period of time. A diphthong is a vowel sound consisting of a deliberate glide. The organs of speech starting in the position of one vowel and immediately moving in the direction of another vowel, for example: [i:]、[i] are monophthongs and /ai/、/ei/ are diphthongs.

2. Consonants can be classified in two ways:

- (1) according to the manner of articulation.
- (2) according to the place of articulation.

3. Broad transcription—one letter symbol for one sound. For example, in broad transcription, the symbol [l] is used for the [l] in words like leaf [li:f]、feel [fi:l]、build [bild] and health [helθ].

Narrow transcription—diacritics are added to the one-letter symbols to

show the finer differences between sounds. For example, the sound [ɫ] in the above mentioned words differ slightly. The [ɫ] in leaf [li:f], occurring before a vowel is called a clear [ɫ] and the [ɫ] in [fɪl] and build [bɪld], occurring at the end of a word or before another consonant is called a dark [ɫ̤] and in narrow transcription the diacritic [~] is used to indicate that it is a dark [ɫ̤]. Then in the sound combination [helθ] the sound [ɫ] is followed by the English dental sound [θ], it is thus called a dental [ɫ] and transcribed as [helθ] in narrow transcription.

Chapter 3 Morphology

(第三章 形态学)

要点提示

1. 主要内容：形态学、词素、词素的类型、自由词素、粘着词素、派生、复合词及其特征。

2. 主要概念：形态学、词素、自由词素、粘着词素、词根、词缀、词干、屈折、派生。

本章概述

形态学是语法学的一个分支，研究单词的内部结构和构词规则。形态学有两个分支：屈折形态学和词汇或派生形态学。前者研究语法屈折和语法意义的表达；后者研究单词的构成和词义的表达。

要了解形态学，首先要了解词素这一概念。词素 (morpheme) 是形态学研究的最基本单位。它是具有最小区别性的语言符号，是音义结合的不能再分的语法单位。

词素是单词的最小的有意义的组成部分。因此像 boyish 这个词就可以说是由 boy 和 -ish 两个词素组成的。“boy”指一个年轻男性，-ish 指有某种品质。因此，boyish 合起来是指“有某个年轻男性的品质的”的意思。

词素可以表达两种意思：词汇意义，如 run 意思是跑；也可以表达语法意义，如 -es 可指第三人称单数。

词素的类型

词素可分为自由词素和粘着词素两种。

自由词素 (free morpheme) 是独立的意义单位, 自身能够单独使用, 如 help、table 等。粘着词素不能单独使用, 只能和其他词素结合在一起成为词才可被单独使用。粘着词素 (bound morpheme) 又可分为两个类型: 词根和词干。

词根 (roots): 经常被看做单词的一部分, 它本身有清楚的、确定的意义但却不能被单独使用, 它必须与另外一个词根或词缀组合起来才能形成一个单词。例如: 词根 geo- 有清楚的意义“土地”, 它和另外一词根 -ology (一个学科的分支) 组合在一块才组合为一个单词 geology (地理学); 又如: 词根 “liter-” 意思是“文字”, 词缀 “-al” 是用来构成形容词的后缀, 因此 literal 就有一个形容词的意义“文字的”。

词缀又可分为两种: 屈折词缀和派生词缀。屈折词缀或屈折词素用来表明各种各样的语法关系或语法范畴, 如数、时态、级和格等。就词尾而言, 英语要比俄语、法语、德语等简单得多, 英语中保留下来的屈折词缀有:

- (e) s 表示名词复数
- (e) s 表示一般现在时的第三人称单数
- (e) d 表示各种人称的过去时态
- ing 表示进行体
- er 表示形容词或副词比较级
- est 表示形容词或副词最高级
- 's 表示名词的所有格

派生构词法是英语中最普遍的一种构词法。这种构词法是把派生词缀加在现存的一个形式词之后构成一个新词的方法。这种由派生构词法形成的词叫做派生词, 原来存在的形式词叫做词干。一个词干可以是一个粘着词根、一个自由词素或本身就是一个派生词, 如 tolerate: 词干 toler + 词缀 -ate; quickly: 自由词素 quick + 词缀 ly; carelessness: 自由词素 care + 词缀 -less 构成派生词 careless + 词缀 -ness 构成新的派生词 carelessness.

根据在新词中的位置, 词缀又可分为前缀和后缀。前缀 (pre-

fixes) 出现在句首, 通常改变原来单词的意义, 但不改变其词性。如前缀 dis- 加在 like 前时, 意义与 like (喜欢) 正好相反, 而词性仍为动词; 但前缀中有两个是例外的: 当前缀 be- 和前缀 en (m) - 加在形容词或名词前时意义和词性都发生了变化, 原来的词变为了动词。例如: little - belittle; body - embody。

后缀加在词干后面, 通常改变原来词的意义, 并且大多数情况下改变词性。因此后缀又可分为名词后缀、形容词后缀、副词后缀和动词后缀。

与其他规则一样, 形态学规则也不能一般化。这一规则主要指英语中通过派生方式形成新词的规则。例如: 同样的后缀 -ly 加在名词之后可形成形容词, 表示名词所拥有的某种品质, 如 friendly, kingly。但这一规则却不能被扩大使用, 例如, 不能将 -ly 加在 boy、girl 后形成形容词, 我们必须用 -ish 这一后缀加在 boy、girl 后形成一个形容词—boyish, girlish。

英语中另外一种重要的构词法是复合法。从词素分析方面来讲, 派生可以被看做是把词缀加在词根上构成新词的方法; 而复合构词法则是把两个或两个以上的词合起来构成新词的方法。

对复合词可以用不同标准来分类。其中一种是根据复合词构成成份的词性来分类。按照这种分类法, 复合词可被分为如下几种。

- 名词 + 名词 如 handbook
- 形容词 + 名词 如 highway
- 形容词 + 名词 + ~ed 如 whitehaired
- 动词 + 名词 如 driveway
- 副词 + 名词 如 downtown
- 名词 + 动词 如 toothpick
- 动词 + 副词 如 followup
- 名词 + 形容词 如 world - famous
- ~ing 形式 + 名词 如 dining - room

还有其他形式如: go - between, father - in - law, upbringing, havenots, thank - you note 等。

复合词还有一些特征。

1. 书写特征：复合词可以写成一个词，也可以分开写，中间加连字符或不加连字符，如 *armchair*, *follow - up* *thunder bird*。如何书写一个合成词是一个约定俗成的问题，我们必须尊重英语本族语言使用者的习惯。

2. 句法特征：复合词的词性一般取决于复合词中最后一个成分的词性，如 *ice - cold*, *headstrong* 为形容词；*greenhouse* 为名词。但是很多以动词、副词或介词结尾的合成词的词性是不符合这一规则的。例如，*follow - up*, *crackdown*, *kickoff* 是名词而非副词；*toothpick*, *snowfall* 和 *facelift* 是名词而非动词。

3. 语义特征：复合词的意义具有习语性质，许多复合词的意义都不是其构成成份意义的总和，如 *a blackleg* 并不是一只黑色的腿，而是工贼的意思。

4. 语音特征：复合词的单词重音一般落在第一个构成成份上，而第二个构成成份往往是次重读的，这有助于我们分清一个以 *-ing* 形式作为一个名词的前置定语的名词词组和一个以 *-ing* 形式作为其组成部分的复合词。如：同样的形式 “*running dog*” 就可以有两种不同方式来读：一种是 *ˌrunning ˈdog* 表示一条正在跑的狗；另外一种读法是 *ˈrunning ɪdog* 表示盲目追随别人作坏事的人。

【名词解释（汉）】

1. 形态学 (Morphology)：语法学的一个分支，研究单词的内部结构和构词规则。

2. 词素 (Morpheme)：形态学研究的最基本的单位，它是单词的最小的有意义的组成部分。

3. 自由词素 (Free morpheme)：是独立的意义单位，自身能够单独使用的词素。

4. 粘着词素 (Bound morpheme)：不能单独作用，只能和其他词素结合在一起组成单词才能被单独使用的词素。

5. 词根 (Root)：粘着词素的一种，往往被看作是一个单词的一个部分。它本身有清楚、确定的意义，却不能被单独使用，而只能与另外一个词根结合在一起或与另外一个词缀结合在一起才能形

成一个单词。

6. 词缀 (Affix): 粘着词素的一种。它们只能附着在其他词素上, 改变词的语义或语法功能。

7. 屈折 (Inflection): 通过增加屈折词素的方法来表明语法关系的构词方法。

8. 派生 (Derivation): 通过增加派生词素来表明词干与词缀关系的构词方法。

9. 词干 (Stem): 派生词缀可加在一个已存在的形式词上形成的一个新词, 原来存在的形式词被称为词干。词干可以是粘着词根, 自由词素和一个派生词。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Morphology (形态学): A branch of grammar which studies the internal structure of words and the rules by which words are formed.

2. Morpheme (词素): The basic unit in the study of morphology and the smallest meaningful components of words.

3. Free morpheme (自由词素): Free morphemes are independent units of meaning and can be used freely all by themselves.

4. Bound morpheme (粘着词素): Bound morphemes are those morphemes that cannot be used by themselves, but must be combined with other morphemes to form words that can be used independently.

5. Root (词根): A root is the base form of a word which cannot be further analysed without total loss of identity.

6. Affix (词缀): The collective term for the type of formative that can be used only when added to another morpheme (the root or stem). Naturally, affixes belong to the type of "bound" morphemes.

7. Inflection (屈折): The manifestation of grammatical relationships through the addition of inflectional affixes, such as number, tense, degree and case.

8. Derivation (派生): The manifestation of relation between stems and affixes through the addition of derivational affixes.

9. Stem (词干): A stem is the existing form to which a derivational affix can be added. A stem can be a bound root, a free morpheme, or a derived form itself.

补充练习

I. Indicate the following statements true or false.

1. Inflected words are part of the lexicon or dictionary. ()
2. Derivational morphemes never change the syntactic category of the words to which they are attached. ()
3. Free morphemes may be subdivided into inflectional and derivational morphemes. ()
4. The word "gentlemanliness" is made up of 4 morphemes, "gentle - man - li - ness". ()
5. The word "standing" is made up of two bound morphemes: "stand" and "ing". ()
6. The free root ~ tain can be added to other prefixes to form new words, for example: contain, obtain, retain. ()
7. A morpheme must convey a lexical meaning. ()
8. Inflectional affixes manifest various grammatical relations or grammatical categories, such as number, tense, degree and case. ()
9. All words may be said to contain a root morpheme. ()
10. Comparing with the specific phonological rules, the morphological rules can be generalized. ()

II. Fill in each of the following blanks with one word.

1. Morphology is a branch of _____ which studies the internal structure of _____ and the rules by which words are formed.
2. Morphology can be divided into two subbranches: _____ morphology and _____ or _____ morphology.
3. Affixes can be called _____ morphemes.

4. Free morphemes are made up of _____ roots.
5. Bound morphemes consist of _____ affixes, _____ affixes and _____ roots.
6. A morpheme can convey two kinds of meanings: _____ and _____.
7. A stem can be a _____, a _____, and a _____ itself.
8. The word "carelessness" consists of a free _____ "care" and _____ "less" and an affix ~ "ness".
9. Prefixes modify the _____ of the stem;
suffixes change _____ of the original word.
10. Derivational morphology studies _____ and inflectional morphology studies _____.

III . In each of the following questions, there are four choices, Decide which one would be the best answer to the question or best complete the sentence.

1. The smallest meaningful unit of language is _____.
A. morpheme
B. phone
C. phoneme
D. allomorpheme
2. The word “antidisestablishmentarianism” contains _____ morphemes.
A. 5
B. 6
C. 7
D. 8
3. The word modernizers is composed of _____ morphemes.
A. 4
B. 3
C. 6
D. 5
4. Morpheme that can occur “unattached” are called _____.
A. inflectional
B. bound
C. free
D. derivational morphemes
5. The compound word “running dog” should be pronounced _____, when it means “a person who follows others blindly”.

A. *running* ¹*dog*

B. ¹*running* ₁*dog*

C. ¹*running* ¹*dog*

D. ₁*running* ¹*dog*

IV. Answer the following questions in English.

1. Analyse the following words, try to tell how many morphemes each word contain.

ascendant underdeveloped naturalistically

doing desire boyishness radiation

walks dining - room individualistic

2. Decide the meaning of the following affixes and roots and give each affix two examples.

re -

un -

anti -

super -

mis -

audi -

gene -

thermo -

semi -

~ path

~ wise

~ itis

~ ize

~ age

参考答案

I .

1.F 2.F 3.F 4.T 5.F 6.F 7.F 8.T 9.T 10.F

II .

1. grammar, words 2. inflectional, lexical, derivational 3. bound 4. free 5. inflectional, derivational, bound 6. lexical, grammatical 7. boundroot, free morpheme, derived form 8. morpheme affix 9. meaning, part of speech 10. word formation inflections.

III .

1.A 2.C 3.A 4.C 5.B

IV .

1. ascend + ant under + develop + ed

natur + al + ist + ic + al + ly do + ing

desire radia + tion walk + s din + ing + room

individual + ist + ic

2. re - , again, e.g. rewrite reread

un - , not, showing the opposite action, e.g. uneasy, unlock

anti - , against, e.g. antihero antidrug

super - , greater or more than usual, e.g. superpower, superman

mis - , badly, wrong (ly), show the opposite of, e.g. misfortune,
misunderstand

audi - , listening, e.g. auditor, audience

gene - , life, e.g. genital genetic

thermo - , heat, e.g. thermometer thermonuclear

semi - , half, e.g. semicircle semifinal

~ path - , emotion, e.g. sympathy empathy

~ wise - , in the manner of , in the direction of,
with regard of, e.g. clockwise, weatherwise

~ itis, disease of inflection of, e.g. tonsillitis, appendicitis

~ ize, to make of the stated type or put into the stated condition, e.
g. modernize nationalize

~ age, the process of an action, e.g. marriage, breakage.

Chapter 4 Syntax

(第四章 句法学)

要点提示

1. 主要内容：句法学、句子的类型、句子的线性排列与结构层次、词类、词组类、重写规则、X 标杆理论、句子的移位、深层结构、表层结构、移动 α 原则、普遍语法、参数。

2. 主要概念：句法学、句子、定式子句、子句、主句、X 标杆理论、层次结构、语法关系、表层结构、普遍语法。

本章概述

本章主要介绍了有关句法的一些基础知识，包括句子的类型、结构、句子的组合与移位以及普遍语法等。

句法学是语言学的一个分支，研究句子结构。句法是由一套数量有限的抽象规则组成的系统，单词按照这些规则组成起来形成符合语法规则的句子。句法规则构成了被称为语言能力的一个讲话者的内部化了的语言知识系统。因此语言学的一个主要目的就是利用一种语法理论来解释句法规则是如何构成这一语法知识的，正如美国语言学家乔姆斯基所言：对一种语言的分析的基本目的就是把那些合乎语法规则的句子，从那些不符合语法规则的句子中分离出来，并研究这些符合语法规则的句子的结构。

对任何一种自然语言而言，其句法规则都是有限的，但抽象的句法规则可以将单词组合成数量无限的句子，说话者运用句法规则，可以理解或表达从未听说过的句子，生成的句子必须符合语法

性，即句子的合成必须符合操本族语者头脑中的语法知识。

句子是包含一定数量的单词形成的表达完整的陈述，提问和命令的结构独立的语法单位。一般来说，句子都是由一个主语和一个包括一个定式动词或动词词组的谓语构成。表示人物、地点、事物、观念、事件的所指名词，在语法上被称为主语，一个主语通常是一个名词或名词词组。它常常被放在谓语动词之前。谓语是对句子中主语进行表达和判断的部分，它通常由一个定式动词或一个动词词组构成。一个定式动词通常被称为一个句子的主要动词，要受到人称、数、时态、语气等的限制。如“John likes linguistics.”此句中 John 为主语，即所指名词，likes linguistics 是谓语，由一个动词词组构成，它包含一个定式动词 likes 及其宾语 linguistics。

传统上，句子有三种类型：简单句、并列句和复合句。简单句由一个主语和一个谓语构成，能独立存在，它通常包括一个简单子句；包含一个主语和一个定式动词，同时在结构上能够单独存在的从句叫定式子句。这些定式子句可以是简单句，也可以和其他子句组合在一起形成一个大的句子，从而成为这个句子的从句。

并列句含由连接词串联起来的两个子句组成，这两个子句具有平等的地位，无轻重之分。复合句由两个或两个以上的子句组成，其中之一为主要子句，其余为从属子句。这些子句是主要子句的语法单位，它们与主句的关系是部分对整体的关系。许多子句都需要有一个从属的连词来引导。从属连词不仅是从属子句的开始，而且还可表明从句在主句中的语法作用。另外，从属子句除非改变其存在形式，否则是不能被单独使用的。

语言是一个高度结构化的交际系统。因此句子的构成也需要遵循一套特定的句法规则。不论口头上，还是书面上，句子中的词都是按线性排列的；但是句中词的线性排列并不表明句子的结构是一种线性结构。如下例所示，我们不能这样随意分割句子：

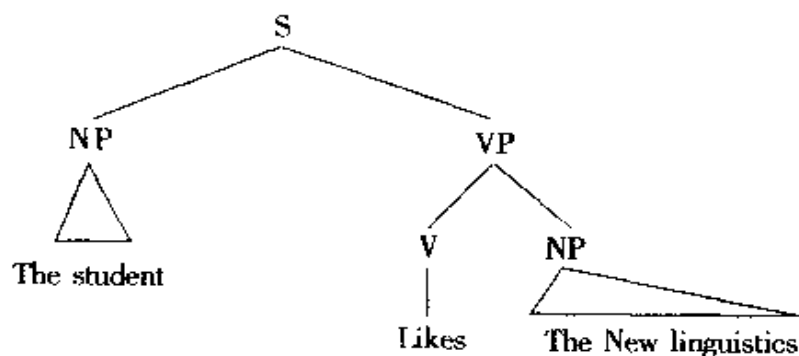
The/student likes/the new/linguistics professor.

而应该这样分割：

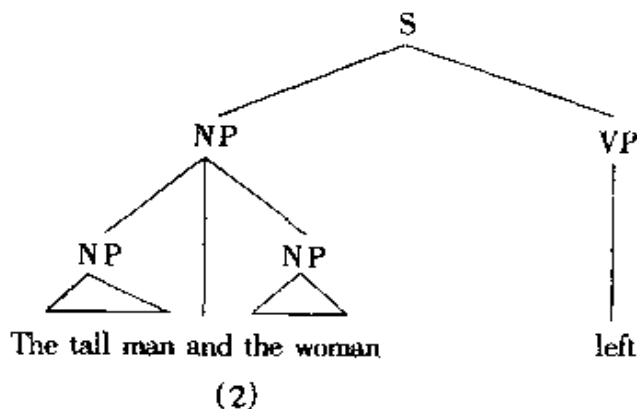
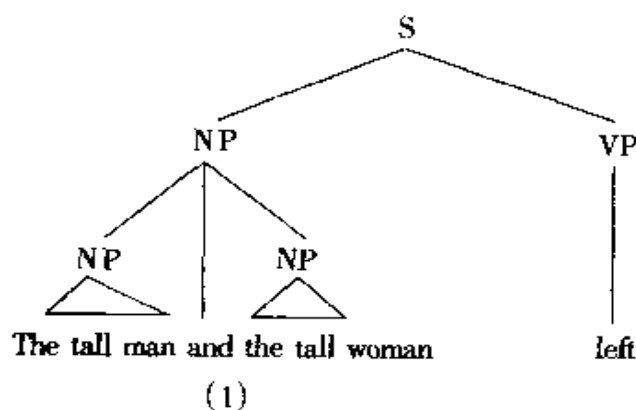
The student//likes/the new linguistics professor.

这表明句子的结构是一种由名词词组和动词词组等句法成分单

位构成的层次性结构。句法学家通常以“成分结构树形图”来揭示或表现句子的层次性结构，并以同一句子所含的不同层次结构来解释句子的不同含义。如：在这个树形图中，S（句子）是树根，处于最高位置，从这一点开始分叉，分成各个词组类型如名词词组或动词词组。这些词组类型又往下细分成更小的句法单位，位于这个树形图最底层的单独的单词或词素。



下图表明了同一句子之中的不同组成成分之间的关系
句子：The tall man and woman left.



也有的语言学家用方括号和下标标签来展示句子的层次结构。如

[_s [_{NP} The student] [_{vp} [_v likes] [_{NP} the new linguistics professor]]]。但这种方法不如树形图普遍。

除了句子和子句之外，句法类型通常还指起特殊语法作用的词或词组类。能够互相替代而不改变其语法性的成份属于同一句法类别。如：The student liked the linguistics lecture 和 The linguistics lecture liked the student 都是合乎语法的句子。因为 The student 和 the linguistics lecture 是属于同一句法范畴的，它们之间的互换并不能引起语法上的变化。而下句：liked the student the linguistics lecture 则是错句。因为 like 与 the student 及 the linguistics lecture 分属不同句法类型。

所有的词都具有某种属性，称为词性。单词是按照词性来分类的。词可分为主要词类和次要词类两种，主要词类因其可以不断增加新词而被称为开放类；次要词类因其数量固定，新词不能不断增加而被称为封闭类。英语中有 4 种主要词类：名词、动词、形容词、副词。次要词类则有 6 种：限定词、助动词、介词、代词、连词和感叹词。

英语中有四类词组：名词词组 (NP)、形容词词组 (AP)、动词词组 (VP) 和介词词组 (PP)。除极少数单词外，绝大多数单词都能和其他词组合在一起形成词组，其中名词词组和动词词组是句子中的主要组成部分，它们构成了句子的主语和谓语。名词词组与动词之间的关系被称为语法关系，这就涉及到主语和宾语的结构性与逻辑性。一般来说，句子的主语放在动词之前，直接宾语放在动词之后，分别被称为句子的形式主语和形式宾语。但句子的意义上的主语和宾语才是句子的逻辑主语和逻辑宾语，句子的逻辑主、宾语可以与句子的形式主、宾语一致，也可以不一致。例如在被动句中，形式主语是逻辑宾语，而形式宾语则是逻辑主语；在强调句中 it 为形式主语而非真正的句子主语。

句子由单词和短语组成，这些单词和短语依据一定的规则组合到一起。这些规则也被称为句子的重写规则。短语结构规则表明每

一个组成成分是由什么组成的 其基本形式为 $X \rightarrow Y$ ，意思是把 X 重写为 Y ，即把箭头左侧的符号重写为右侧的符号，箭头的右侧说明了组成成分的线性顺序。例如 $S \rightarrow NP \cdot VP$ 意思是一个句子可以重写为一个名词短语和一个动词短语。

一个名词词组可以改写为：

- a. $NP \rightarrow N$ (John)
- b. $NP \rightarrow N$ (man)
- c. $NP \rightarrow Det N$ (a/the man)
- d. $NP \rightarrow Adj N$ (tall man)
- e. $NP \rightarrow Det N S$ (the tall man that wears glasses)
- f. $NP \rightarrow Det Adj N PP$ (a tall man with glasses)
- g. $NP \rightarrow Det Adj N PP S$ (the tall man with glasses that I met)

以上七条规则可合并为一条规则。

$NP \rightarrow (Det) (Adj) N (PP) (S)$

括号说明可以任意选择。这一规则说明 NP 可以是一个名词，或者名词前加一个限定词或形容词，或名词后加一个介词短语或一个从句。

同样，我们可以把一个动词短语改写为

$VP \rightarrow V (NP) (PP) (S)$

形容词短语改写为

$AP \rightarrow A (PP) (S)$

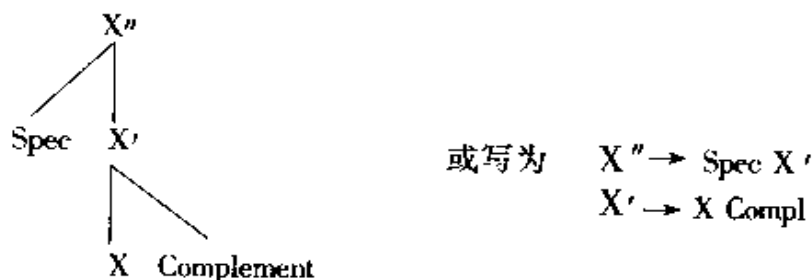
介词短语改写为

$PP \rightarrow P NP$

短语结构规则可以概括解释句子的生成过程，也可以解释句子的生成的无限性，根据这一规则，短语和句子可以无限地组合起来。任何一种语言的语法规则都是有限的，词汇量也是有限的。然而因为短语结构规则无限循环的属性的存在，句子的数量和长度都可以是无限的。

重新考虑上述短语结构规则，我们发现，每一个短语都包含一个不可缺少的核心词，其余的都是可选择的成分。例如一个名词短语必须包含一个名词，一个动词短语必须包含一个动词等。我们把

任何一个短语称为 XP 或 X 短语，其中 X 为核心词。那么任何一个短语可以重写为可选择的限定词后加一个不可缺少的核心词，后面再加上一个可选择的补语，即 $XP \rightarrow (\text{Spec}) X (\text{compl})$ 。由于 XP 规则具有普遍性，我们可以引入两个符号 X'' 和 X' ，从而把所有的短语结构规则高度抽象地综合为单一的 X 标杆规则。用树形图表示为：



这就是 X 标杆理论。这一理论大大减少了各个独立的词组结构规则，有助于我们更好地描述语言的属性。

短语结构规则能够解释句法类型的形成和句子的产生，但却无法描述句法移位这样的现象。

句法移位是指句子的一个成分由其原来的位置移到其他位置。句法移位要受转换规则的支配。

在英语中，主要有两类句法移位。一类是名词词组的移位，例如当把一个主动语态的句子变为被动语态的句子时，原来充当主语的名词词组和充当宾语的名词词组需要逆向移位，如下例所示。

句子 The man beat the child 变为被动句时需将 the child 前置，同时将 The man 后置。变为 The child was beaten by the man.

又如下面两句：

a. It seems they are quite fit for the job.

b. They seem quite fit for the job.

句 a 与句 b 意义一样，但表面的句法结构是不同的。我们可以认为名词词组 they 是从从句中主语的位置移到了主句中主语的位置。

英语中的另一类移位现象是 WH 移位，即带 WH 的词如 when where, why, what, who 等的成分从句中所处的原位移至另一位置。

当句子由陈述句变为特殊疑问句时，必然要有这一移位现象。

其他类型的移位现象还有助动词移位。一般陈述句变为一般疑问句时必然会出现助动词移位现象，而为了某种文体的需要而把本来在动词后面的形容词移至以 *though* 为开首的句子前面则属于形容词移位现象，如 *Sick though she was, the woman fought with the wolf.*

句法移位现象表明句子结构有两种层次，即深层结构 (D-structure) 和表层结构 (S-structure)。在句法移位发生前，将短语结构规则与词项相结合所产生的句法结构称为句子的深层结构。它是存在于说话者和听话者头脑中的抽象的句法结构；把句法移位规则作用于深层结构所产生的最后一个形式称为表层结构，是我们实际发出或写出的具体的句法结构。

下表可解释转换生成语法的句法部分。

短语结构规则 + 词汇



深层结构



移动规则



表层结构

尽管每个句子都有这两层结构，但这并不意味着这两层结构一定要有不同的表现形式。内部成分无需移位的句子，其深层结构和表层结构有着相同的表现形式。

正如短语结构规则有一个统一的 X 标杆理论一样，句子成分的移位也有一个统一的普遍规则，即移动 α 规则。 α 是一个希腊符号，在此处代表任何一个组成部分。移动 α 规则意思是“把任一成分移至任一位置”，移动 α 规则综合了所有的移位规则，可以解释所有语言中的一切移位现象。

很明显，这一移动规则允许任何成分的任何移动，这样一来就会造成许多错句，因此，我们很有必要提出一些限制性条件来约束移动 α 规则的使用，普遍语法因此出现。

20 世纪 80 年代，N·乔姆斯基和其他语言学家一起发展了普遍

语法 (UG), 即, 原则与参数理论。它是人类所特有的存在于人类头脑中的语言知识体系, 由一些高度抽象的原则和参数所构成。

普遍原则可以生成短语, 同时又限制移动 α 规则的滥用。它由许多条件组成, 其中之一为格条件。依据这一条件, 一个名词词组必须有其属格形式。它可以做动词或介词的宾语, 也可以做助动词的主语。也就是说当一个名词词组移动时, 它只能被移动到主语或宾语的位置, 而不能被任意移动到其他位置。

原则的另一条件是毗邻条件, 也就是说格的支配者和格的接受者必须要毗邻。这一条件解释了为什么动词与其直接宾语之间不能插入其他类型的词组的原因, 如我们不可说:

John read quickly the linguistics book.

但是这一毗邻条件并不能适用于任何一种语言。例如法语是允许动词与其直接宾语之间加入一些其他的词的。为了使普遍语法真正做到有普遍性, 参数理论又被引入了进来。

普遍语法参数是一组设置在普遍语法广义原则上的句法选项。如“毗邻参数”和“方位参数”等。上例中, 对于法语类型的语言来说, 其毗邻条件可写为 $[- \text{严格毗邻}]$; 而英语类的语言则可以写为 $[+ \text{严格毗邻}]$; 又如, 对于动词词组的单词顺序问题, “方位参数”则起了很大作用, 英语中 VP 的顺序为 $VP \rightarrow V NP$ 如:

$I [vp [like] [NP [linguistics analysis]]]$.

而在日语中, 其 VP 顺序为

$I [vp [NP [linguistics [v like]]]$

$I [vp [NP [linguistics analysis [v like]]]]$.

因此英语的方位参数可写为 $[\text{右置方位}]$, 而日语则可写为 $[\text{左置方位}]$ 。

普遍语法参数理论可以为各民族语言之间的差异现象提供满意的解释, 普遍语法参数的设置及操作使人类语言呈现出多样化的语言系统。

【名词解释 (汉)】

1. 句法学 (Syntax): 语言学的一个分支, 研究语言的句子结

构。

2. 句子 (Sentence): 是由一定数量的单词形成的表达完整的陈述、提问和命令的结构独立的语法单位。

3. 定式子句 (Finite clause): 包含一个主语和一个定式动词, 同时结构上能够单独存在的从句。

4. 从属子句 (Embedded clause): 在一个复合句中, 处于从属地位的子句。

5. 主要子句 (Matrix clause): 在一个复合句中, 被嵌入了从属子句的子句。

6. X 标杆理论 (X-bar theory): 将各种短语结构规则高度抽象地综合成单一的 X 标杆规则的理论。根据 x 标杆理论, 短语由指示语、核心语和补语组成, 其中指示语可有可无, 但核心词则不可缺。即 $X'' \rightarrow (\text{指示语}) X (\text{补语})$ 。

7. 层次结构 (Hierarchical structure): 由名词词组或动词词组等句法成分单位构成的具有层次性的句子结构。

8. 语法关系 (Grammatical relations): 指每一个短语和句子之间的结构上与逻辑上的关系。

9. 表层结构 (S-structure): 句子的一种基本结构。是句法移位规则作用于深层结构的产物。

10. 普遍语法 (General grammar): 是一种人类特有的语言知识系统, 由一些高度抽象的原则和参数构成。

11. 移动 α 规则: 一条支配句法成分移位的普遍原则。它综合了所有的移位规则, 可以解释语言中的一切移位规则。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Syntax (句法学): A subfield of linguistics that studies the sentence structure of language.

2. Sentence (句子): A structurally independent unit that usually comprises a number of words to form a complete statement, question or command.

3. Finite clause (定式子句): A clause that takes a subject and a fi-

nite verb, and at the same time stands structurally alone.

4. Embedded clause (从属子句): In a complete sentence, the incorporated, or subordinate clause is normally called an embedded clause.

5. Matrix clause (主要子句): In a complexed sentence, the clause into which it is embedded is called a matrix clause.

6. X-bar theory (x 标杆理论): a general and highly abstract schema that collapses all phrase structure rules into a single format: $x'' \rightarrow (\text{Spec}) X (\text{Compl})$.

7. Hierarchical structure (层次结构): The sentence structure that groups words into structural constituents and shows the syntactic categories of each structural constituent, such as NP and VP.

8. Grammatical relations (语法关系): the structural and logical functional relations between every noun phrase and sentence.

9. S-structure (表层结构): a level of syntactic representation after the operation of necessary syntactic movement.

10. General grammar (普遍语法): a system of linguistic knowledge which consists of some general principles and parameters about natural language.

11. Move α (移动 α 规则): A general movement rule accounting for the syntactic behavior of any constituent move meat.

补充练习

I .Indicate the following statements true or false.

1. The part of a sentence which comprises an infinite verb or a verb phrase is grammatically called predicate. ()

2. The syntactic rules of a language are finite in number, yet there is no limit to the number of sentences that could be produced. ()

3. A coordinate sentence contains two finite clauses joined by a conjunction. ()

4. The two clauses in a complex sentence are structurally equal, al-

though they are named differently. ()

5. The D – structure of a sentence and S – structure of a sentence may look the same. ()

6. The subordinator does not merely mark the beginning of a matrix clause but more importantly, indicates the grammatical function of the embedded clause in the sentence. ()

7. Constituents that can be substituted for one another without loss of grammaticality belong to the same syntactic category. ()

8. All the lexical items have certain combinational properties that allow them to combine with words of different categories to form phrases. ()

9. A parameter allows the meaning of a language to behave in a way very different from that of another language. ()

10. By using move α rule, we can move any constituents to any positions we want without any restrictions. ()

II . Fill in each of the following blanks with one word.

1. Syntactic rules comprise the system of internalized linguistic knowledge of a language speaker known as linguistic _____

2. The fundamental aim in the linguistic analysis of a language is to study the _____ of the meaningful sequences.

3. A sentence is a structurally independent unit that usually comprises a number of _____ to form a complete statement _____ or command.

4. Traditionally, three major types of sentences are distinguished, namely _____ sentence, _____ sentence or _____ sentence, and _____ sentence.

5. The subordinate sentence in a complex sentence is called an _____ clause and the clause into which it is embedded is called a _____ clause.

6. In a tree diagram, _____ is the root of tree.

7. The _____ property captures the ability of language to generate more constituents to a sentence.

8. XP can be rewritten as () X (), X is called the _____.

9. In English, the D - structure can be turned into S - structure through _____.

10. The distinction between the _____ and _____ functional relations of constituents are called grammatical relations.

III. In each of the following questions there are four choices. Decide which one would be the best answer to the questions or best complete the sentence.

1. The syntactic components provide the _____ for a sentence.
A. lexicon B. structure C. meaning D. sound
2. Transformational rules do not change the basic _____ of sentences.
A. meaning B. structure
C. form D. sound pattern
3. Transformational grammar is a type of grammar first proposed by _____ in his book *language*.
A. Noam Chomsky B. Sapir
C. Hjelmslev D. Bloomfield
4. The theory of universal grammar was proposed by _____.
A. Noam Chomsky B. Firth
C. F. D. Saussure D. Sapir
5. The sentence "John reads quickly the linguistics book." is a wrong sentence because it violates the _____ rule.
A. adjacency condition B. case condition
C. X - bar theory D. Move a rule
6. The study of the linguistic meaning of words phrases and sentences is called _____.
A. pragmatics B. semantics C. linguistics D. syntax
7. Hanging at the bottom of the tree diagram of a sentence is _____.
A. a finite clause B. words groups

- C. individual morphemes D. sentence
8. In English, there are two types of syntactic movements, one involving the movement of _____, the other involving the movement of WH – word.
- A. NP B. VP C. PP D. AP
9. In a simple sentence, the clause is called _____.
- A. a matrix clause B. a subordinate clause
C. an embedded sentence D. a finite clause
10. In TG Grammar, the syntactic component provides the _____ for a sentence.
- A. sound B. structure C. meaning D. finite set

IV. Answer the following questions in English.

1. For each of the following two sentences, draw a tree diagram of its underlying structure that will reveal the difference in the sentences.

- (1) ① The mouse ran up the rock.
② The mouse ate up the cheese.
- (2) ① John gave Mary the book.
② John gave the book to Mary.

2. Paraphrase each of the following sentences in two different ways to show the syntactic rules account for the ambiguity of sentences.

- (1) Flying planes can be dangerous.
(2) Visiting professors can be interesting.
(3) Young men and women are easy to quarrel with each other.
(4) The president's appointment was shocking.

3. The following sentences are believed to have derived from their D – structure representations. Show the D – structure for each of these sentences.

- (1) What can I do?
(2) The boy saw a boat.
(3) Will you do anything for her?

(4) The man put the books away and went out.

参考答案

I .

1.F 2.T 3.F 4.F 5.T 6.F 7.T 8.F 9.F 10.F.

II .

1.competence 2.structure 3.words question 4.simple
coordinate compound complex 5.embedded, matrix 6.sentence
7.recursive 8.Spec Compl head 9.transformational rules
10.structural logical

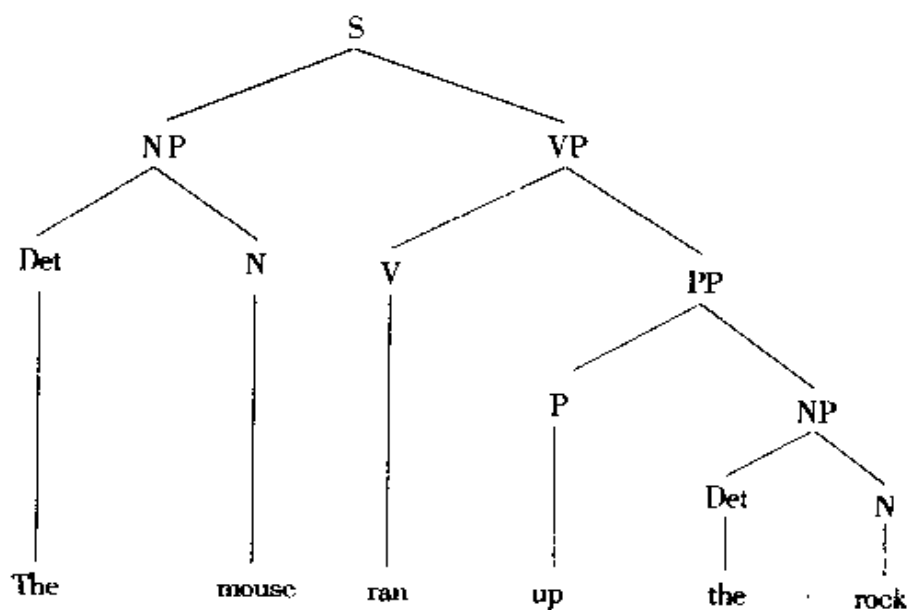
III .

1.B 2.D 3.A 4.A 5.B 6.B 7.C 8.A 9.D 10.B

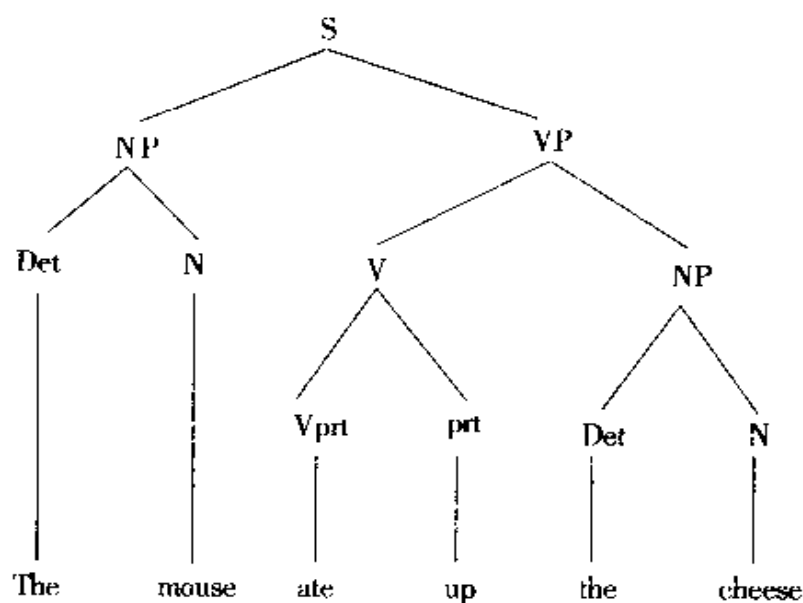
IV .

(1) The mouse ran up the rock .

①

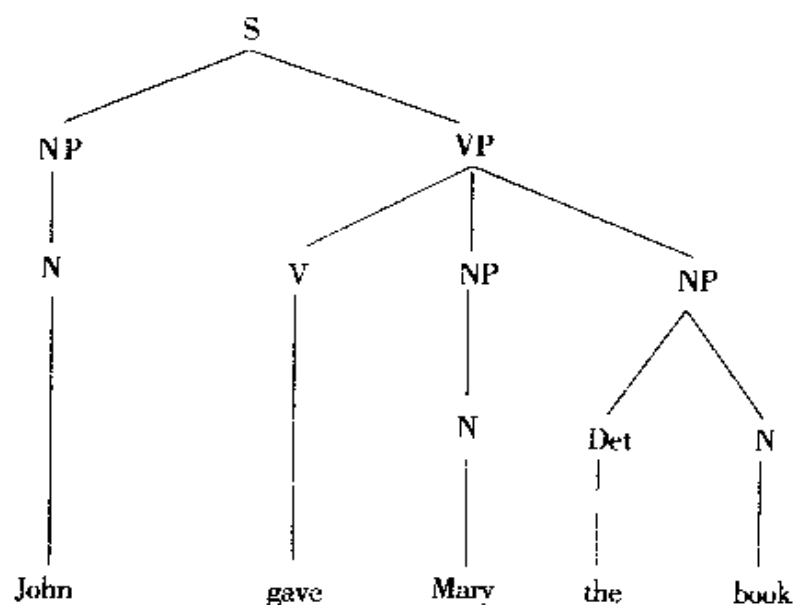


②The mouse ate up the cheese.



(注: $V \rightarrow Vprt\ Prt$ 其中 prt 为小品词)

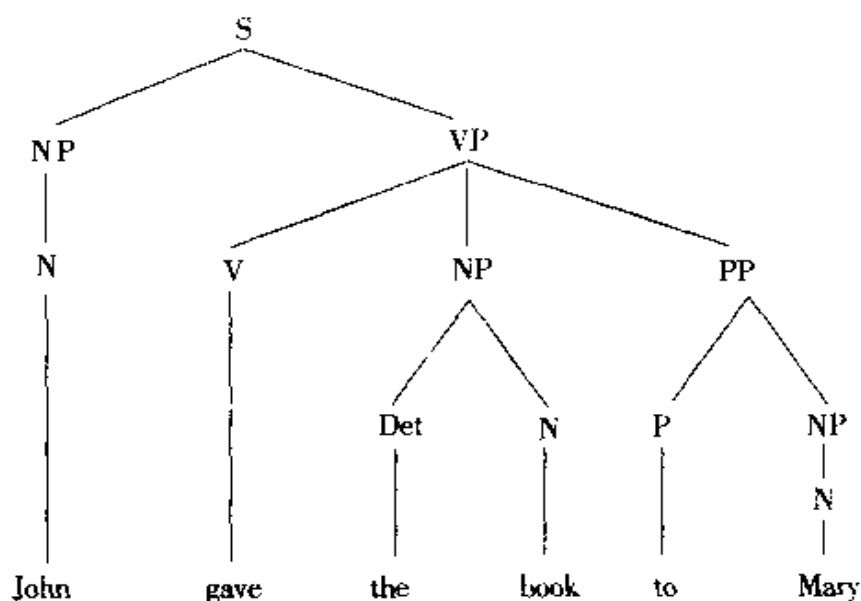
(2) ①John gave Mary the book.



②John gave the book to Mary.

2: (1) ①That people fly planes can be dangerous.

②Planes that fly can be dangerous.



- (2) ①To visit professors can be interesting.
 ②Professors who are visiting can be interesting.
- (3) ①Young men and young women are easy to quarrel with each other.
 ②Young men and women (who are not young) are easy to quarrel with each other.
- (4) ①That someone appointed the president was shocking.
 ②That the president appointed someone was shocking.
3. (1) I can do what.
 (2) The boy past see a boat.
 (3) You will do anything for her.
 (4) The man put away the books and went out.

Chapter 5 Semantics

(第五章 语 义 学)

要点提示

1. 主要内容: 语义学研究中的几种理论, 词义、句义、词汇之间和句子之间的主要语义关系, 成分分析法, 句子抽象意义及分析方法。

2. 主要概念: 语义学、命名论、意念论、语境论、行为主义论、意义、所指意义、同义词、多义现象、同音异义、同形异义、下义关系、反义词、相关对应成分分析法、述谓结构分析、先设(或前提)、蕴涵。

本章概述

一、语义研究的几种主要理论

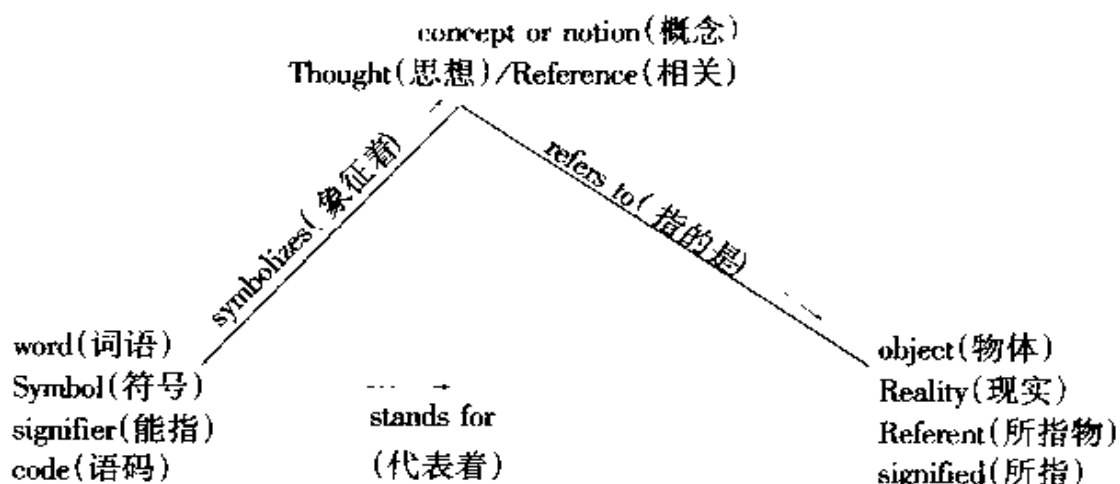
语义研究的几种主要理论有命名论、意念论、语境论、行为主义论。

1. 命名论是最原始的语义理论, 该理论是把词看作是該词所指事物的名称或标记。但这一理论只能适用于名词, 对于动词、形容词、副词就无法解释了, 即使是在名词范围内也无法解释世上本不存在的東西, 例如: 鬼魅 (ghost)、龙 (dragon)、独角兽 (unicorn) 之类和一些抽象的概念, 例如: 高兴 (joy)、冲动 (impulse) 等。

2. 意念论认为词汇与該词汇所指的事物之间的关系不是直接的, 而是间接的, 是靠人脑中的意念来连接的。词汇通过意念来指

称事物，意念便是词汇的意义。这一理论可由著名的语义三角形来表述。

语义三角形虽然是论述和解释语义现象的一种经典理论，但是，自从它 1923 年问世以来已经遭到语义学界的广泛争议和批评，该理论最大的问题在于词语与所指物没有必然的联系，同一个事物可能或可以用不同的词来表示。



3. 语境论认为语言的意义离不开使用语言的语境，语义不是抽象的，它是由语境所决定的。它的前提是假设人们可以从语境中推知词义的意义，它的核心是以下四个因素：①讲话人和听话人；②当时双方在做的事情；③其它外在事件或事物；④指示成分（语言中的代词）。例如：“The seal could not be found.” 这个句子如果不把它放在一定的语境中就很难断定其意义，因为我们无法确定 seal 是指海豹还是印章，但如果将其置入一定的语境之中就不同了。例如：The seal could not be found. The zoo keeper became worried. 在这样的语境中，我们知道 seal 指的是海豹。The seal could not be found. The King became worried. 在这个语境中，我们可以断定，seal 是印章的意思。

4. 行为主义论和语境论的相似之处，行为主义论也把语义放到语境中去研究，但它更注重人的心理活动，认为语言的意义存在于语言使用者在交际过程中对所接受到的话语的反应。

二、词汇意义

意义和所指是词汇意义的两个侧面，意义是内在的、抽象的，独立于语境以外的意义；所指是词汇在特定的语境中所指称的具体事物。

1. 意义 (sense) 是词的词典意义，如在词典中狗 (dog) 就被定义成一种被驯化了的犬齿哺乳动物，有许多种类，并在大小和外形上有着很大的差异 (Collins Dictionary of the English language, 1979)。这显然不是指我们日常所见的狗，而是抽象的任何具有这种特征与属性一类动物的定义，这就是狗 (dog) 这个词的意义。

2. 所指也叫“参照”或“指称” (reference) 是指词和它们所代表的客观事物或现象的关系，它表现于一定的上下文之中。例如：I like the tiny brown dog. 中的狗 (dog) 不是泛指世界上“任何一只狗”，而是这只“小黄狗”。

还有两种情况也是要注意的，一是有着同样意义的词，在不同的情境中，它的所指也不相同，例如：I was once bitten by a dog. Be careful, there comes a dog. 很显然这不是同一只狗。尽管在这两句话中狗的意义都是相同需要，既都是某个具体的狗，但在这两句话中，它的所指是不同的。另一点需要指出的是有时也会出现所指相同的情况，但意义却不同，当然这种情况比较少见，如“morning star”和“evening star”虽然意义不同，但它们的所指却是相同的，即金星 (venus)。

三、主要的意义关系

本节主要介绍了同义、多义、同形异义、上下义和反义五种词义的关系。

1. 同义词 (Synonym): 是指意义相同或相近的词，但是最绝对的同义，即在所有情况下两词可以做到完全同等的互换却是罕见的。根据同义词的差异，我们可以把其分为以下几种情况：A. 地域性同义词——在不同的地域方言中所用的同义词。例如：autumn 和 fall。B. 文体同义词——用于不同文体的同义词，例如：kick the bucket, pop off, die, pass away, decease。C. 在感性或评价方面不同的同义词，这些词的意义相同，但表达了使用者不同的感情，表

明了使用者, 对他所谈论事情的态度。例如: “collaborator” 和 “accomplice” 是同义词, 它们都有帮助另一个人的意思, 但是 “collaborator” 是指帮人做好事; 而 “accomplice” 是指在犯罪过程中帮助另一个人。因此使用哪一个字取决于说话者的意图。D. 搭配区别上的同义词 (collocational synonyms) ——在搭配上有区别的同义词。例如: 当我们说有人做错了事情, 甚至是犯了罪, 我们可以用 “accuse”、“charge”、“rebuke” 来表达, 但它们却需要搭配不同的介词——accuse... of, charge... with, rebuke... for. E. 语义上有差异的同义词 (semantically different synonyms)。例如: “amaze” 和 “astound” 在意思上都与 surprise 非常相近, 但它们还是有非常微妙的差异的, 如果说 “amaze” 表示的是一种困惑、不解的话, 而 “astound” 表示的是难以置信的情感。

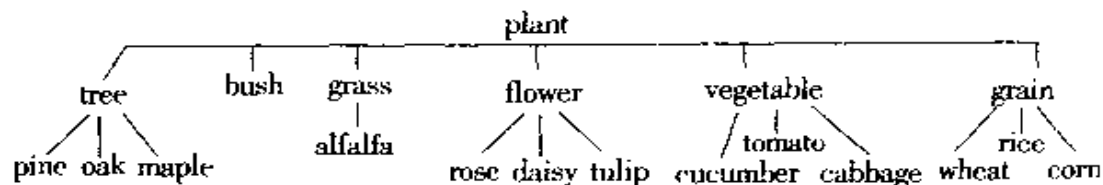
2. 多义词 (Polysmy) 是指一个词具有两个或者两个以上的意义, 在英语中一词多义是普遍的, 而一词单义则是极少数的。

从历史的角度来看, 多义词可以理解为词意在长期使用中随着社会的变迁发展而形成的, 例如: table 一词最早很可能是指 a thin piece of stone or wood. 这也叫词的原始意义 (primary meaning), 然后随着社会的发展, 我们有了 table 这样一种家具, part of a machine tool on which the work is put to be operated on. 再后来就有其它的意义, 例如: 饭菜、伙食: quality of food served at a meal 和 — (览) 表, 表格: a printed or written set of figure, facts or information arranged in orderly rows across and down the page.

3. 同形异义 (Homonymy) 这是指两个或两个以上的词同形或同音但不同义的现象, 同形异义词 (Homographs): tear [tiə] / tear [tiə], sow [sau] / sow [sau]. 同音异形词 (Homophones): rain/reign, dear/deer; 同形同音词 (complete homonyms) ball: (球) / ball (舞会), bank (银行) / bank (河岸)。

4. 上下义关系 (Hyponymy) 有的词表示逻辑上的属性概念, 有的则表示种性的概念。例如: Fruit 就是表示逻辑上属性的概念, 我们称其为上义词 (superordinate), 而苹果、橘子则是表示种性的, 我们称其为下义词 (hyponyms), 它受上义词的支配。以下的图表

会清楚地显示这一关系。



5. 反义词 (Antonymy) 是指词与词之间存在着的相反或对立的语义关系的词, 但应当注意的是这种相反或对立不仅仅存在一个层面上, 而是几个不同的层面:

A: 渐进性关系的反义 (Gradable Antonyms), 即虽然两个意义形成对立的两级, 但在两级之间呈现着一定的梯度关系。例如: 在 hot 与 cold 之间还存在着 “cool”, “warm” 和 “lukewarm” 等梯度关系。

B. 完全反义词 (complementary antonyms), 例如: “alive” / “dead”, “male” / “female”, 也就是说这中间不存在过渡性。

C. 关系反义词也称相关对立反义词 (Relational opposites), 这类反义词是指, 它们不仅意义相反, 都有一种语义上相互依存的关系, 一般大多涉及社会关系和空间关系, 例如: “father” and “son”, “employee” and “employer”, “above” and “below”, “right” and “left” 等。

四、句子间的语义关系

句子间主要有六种同义关系, 其中蕴涵与预设两种最为重要:

A. 同义句关系, 即: X is synonymous with Y.

例如: x: He was a bachelor all his life.

y: He never married all his life.

B. 对立句关系, 即: X is inconsistent with Y.

例如: Mark is married. Mark is a bachelor.

C. 蕴涵句关系: 即 (entailment), 是两个命题之间的语义关系或逻辑关系, 例如:

A: Mark married a blonde heiress.

B: Mark married a blonde.

在这两个命题中，A“蕴涵”B，因为这两句话能满足下列关系条件：

- ①当A是真实的时，B必须也是真实的；
- ②当B不真实时，A也不真实；
- ③当A不真实时，B可能真实也可能不真实；
- ④当B为真实时，A可能真实也可能不真实。

D. 预设句关系，即 (Presupposition)

先设（或前提）是命题之间的关系、陈述之间的关系、句子之间的关系。例如：A 是 John 的手表需要修理了，B 是 John 有块表。

如果A是真实的，那么B肯定是真实的，因为如果John的手表需要修，那么John肯定有表。

如果A不是真实的，那是B仍是真实的，因为如果John的表不需要修理，他仍然有块表。

如果B是真实的，那么A可能是真实的，也可能不是真实的。因为如果John有块表，它可能需要修理，也可能不需要修理。

如果B是不真实的，那么A就没有真假了。因为如果John没有表，那么他的表该不该修就根本不能构成一个问题。

E. 矛盾关系，即 *x is a contradiction*. 例如：My unmarried aunt is married to a bachelor.

F. 语义上的不规则关系，即 *x is semantically anomalous*. 例如：The blackboard has a bad temper. 是非常荒谬的，因为无生命的黑板是不会有“脾气”的。

五、意义分析

1. 成分分析 (componential analysis): 是一种分析词汇抽象意义的方法。它研究的是“概念上的”词汇——语义关系 (conceptual-lexical Relations) 的一种尝试。其基本特点是，所有实词的意义都可以分解成一些“语义成分”。这种语义成分也可称作语义特征 (Semantic Features)、语义标示 (Semantic Markers) 或义素 (Sememes)。

	A	B	C
1	man	woman	child
2	bull	cow	calf
3	stallion	mare	foal

从上表可以看出同处一栏的词语具有某种共同特征。这些特征就是语义特征。例如：A 栏是雄性，B 栏是雌性，C 栏是未成年（无性别之分）；纵看 1 栏是人，2 栏是牛，3 栏是马。

2. 述谓结构分析 (Predication analysis): 所谓述谓是指句子的抽象的语义内容，绝大多数的句子内容都是由一个人或物以及对这个人或物的表述构成的，从语义结构角度来看，这两部分分别称为论元 (argument) 和谓语 (predicate)。所谓述谓结构分析是指通过对这两部分的分析以达到对句子意义进行分析的许多模式中的一种。“述谓”或“谓语句”是所有的健全语句（如命题，即肯定句、否定句、疑问句和祈使句等）的共同特征。因此，语义学家就用“述谓”这一范畴并把它分解成变元和谓语，前者是“逻辑参加者”，后者是“关系因素”，负责把变元联系起来。

【名词解释（汉）】

1. 语义学 (Semantics): 语义学是专门研究语言意义的学科，它主要是对词义和句义两方面进行研究。

2. 命名论 (The naming theory): 命名论是最原始的语义理论，它源自古希腊的柏拉图，该理论把词看作是该词所指的事物的名称。

3. 意义论 (The conceptualist view): 意念论认为词汇与该词汇所指的事物之间的关系，不是直接的，而是间接的。词汇通过头脑中的意念来指称事物，意念就是词汇的意义。

4. 语境论 (Contextualism): 语境论认为语言的意义离不开使用语言的语境，语义存在于语境之中。

5. 行为主义论 (Behaviorism): 语义的行为主义论也是把语义

放到语境中去研究，但它更注重人的心理活动，认为语言的意义存在于语言使用者在交际过程中对所接受到的话语的反应。

6. 意义 (Sense): 意义是词汇意义的一个侧面，它是指词汇内在的抽象，独立于语境之外的意义，也是词典字意。

7. 所指意义 (Reference): 所指意义是词汇意义的另一个侧面，它是词汇在特定的语境中所指称的具体事物。

8. 同义词 (Synonymy): 同义词是指意义相同或相近的词。

9. 多义词 (Polysemy): 多义词现象是指一个词具备两个或两个以上的意义。在英语中，大多数词都是多义词，一词单义的情况很少见。

10. 同音异义或同形异义 (Homonymy): 同音异义或同形异义是指这样一种现象，即有些词词形相同，但意义不同，也就是说，不同的词但它们可能发音相同，或是拼写相同，要么发音和拼写都相同。例如: fast a. /fast v.

11. 同音异义 (Homophones): 当两个词发音相同，但意义不同，就称其为同音异义。例如: rain/reign.

12. 同形异义 (Homographs): 当两个词拼写相同，但意义不同时，我们称之为同形异义。例如: tear v. /tear n.

13. 下义关系 (Hyponymy): 下义关系实际是指两词意之间的关系分别表示的是逻辑上的属的概念与种的概念。表示一般意义的属性的概念的词我们称之为上义词 (Superordinate)，而表示具体的种性概念的词，我们称之为下义词 (Hyponyms)。

14. 反义词 (Antonymy): 反义词是指那些在意义上既相互对立又相互联系。例如: 高与矮它们既对立又联系，因为它们都是表示长度。

15. 成分分析法 (Componential analysis): 成分分析法是一种分析词汇抽象意义的方法。成分分析法研究的是“概念上”的词汇——语义关系 (conceptual—lexicial Relations) 的一种尝试。其基本特点是，所有实词的意义都可以分解成一些“语义成份”。这种语义成份也可称作语义特征 (semantic Features)、语义标示 (Semantic Markers) 或义素 (Sememes)。

16. 述谓结构分析 (Predication analysis): 所谓述谓是指句子的抽象的语义内容, 绝大多数的句子内容都是由一个人或物以及对这个人或物的表述构成的。从语义结构角度来看, 这两部分分别称为论元 (argument) 和谓语 (predicate)。所谓述谓结构分析是指通过对这两部分的分析以达到对句子意义进行分析的许多模式中的一种。“述谓”或“谓语化”是所有的健全语句(如命题, 即肯定句、否定句、疑问句和祈使句等)的共同特征。因此, 语义学家就用“述谓”这一范畴并把它分解成变元和谓语, 前者是“逻辑参加者”, 后者是“关系因素”, 负责把变元联系起来。

17. 先设前提 (Presupposition): 先设(或前提)是命题之间的关系、陈述之间的关系、句子之间的关系。例如: A 是 John 的手表需要修理了, B 是 John 有块表。

如果 A 是真实的, 那么 B 肯定是真实的, 因为如果 John 的手表需要修, 那么 John 肯定有表。

如果 A 不是真实的, 那么 B 仍是真实的, 因为如果 John 的表不需要修理, 他仍然有块表。

如果 B 是真实的, 那么 A 可能是真实的, 也可能不是真实的, 因为如果 John 有块表, 它可能需要修理, 也可能不需要修理。

如果 B 是不真实的, 那么 A 就没有真假了。因为 John 没有表, 那么他的表该不该修就根本不能构成一个问题。

18. 蕴涵 (Entailment): 蕴涵是两个命题之间的语义关系或逻辑关系, 例如:

A: Mark married a blonde heiress.

B: Mark married a blonde.

在这两个命题中, A “蕴涵” B, 因为这两句话能满足下列关系条件: ①当 A 是真实的时, B 必须也是真实的; ②当 B 不真实时, A 也不真实; ③当 A 不真实时, B 可能真实也可能不真实; ④当 B 为真实时, A 可能真实也可能不真实。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Semantics (语义学): Semantics can be simply defined as the

study of meaning.

2. The naming theory (命名论): The naming theory, one of the oldest notions concerning meaning, and also a very primitive one was proposed by the ancient Greek scholar Plato. According to this theory, the linguistic forms or symbols, in other words, the words used in a language are taken to be labels of the objects they stand for. So words are just names or labels for things.

3. The conceptualist view (意念论): The conceptualist view holds that there is no direct link between a linguistic form and what it refers to; rather, in the interpretation of meaning they are linked through the mediation of concepts in the mind.

4. Contextualism (语境论): Contextualism is based on the presumption that one can derive meaning from or reduce meaning to observable contexts. Two kinds of context are recognized, the situational context and the linguistic context.

5. Behaviorism (行为主义论): Behaviorism refers to the attempt to define the meaning of a language form as the "situation in which the speaker utters it and the response it calls forth in the hearer" (Bloomfield, 1933). This theory somewhat close to contextualism emphasizes on the psychological response.

6. Sense (意义): Sense is concerned with the inherent meaning of the linguistic form. It is the collection of all the features of the linguistic form; it is abstract and de-contextualized.

7. Reference (所指意义): Reference means what a linguistic form refers to in the real, physical world; it deals with the relationship between the linguistic element and the non-linguistic world of experience.

8. Synonymy (同义词): Synonymy refers to the sameness or close similarity of meaning or we can say that words that are close in meaning are called synonyms.

9. Polysemy (多义词): Polysemy refers to different words may have the same or similar meaning; the same one word may have more than one

meaning.

10. Homonymy (同音异义; 同形异义). Homonymy refers to the phenomenon that words having different meanings have the same form, i. e., different words are identical in sound or spelling, or in both.

11. Homophones (同音异义): Homophones refer to two words are identical in sound. e. g. rain/reign.

12. Homographs (同形异义): Homographs refer to two words are identical in spelling. e. g. tear v. /tear n.

13. Hyponymy (下义关系): Hyponymy refers to the sense relation between a more general, more inclusive word and a more specific word. The word which is more general in meaning is called superordinate, and the more specific words are called its hyponyms.

14. Antonymy (反义词): Antonymy is the term used for opposite-ness of meaning on different dimensions.

15. Componential analysis (成分分析法): Componential analysis is a way proposed by the structural semanticists to analyze word meaning. This approach is based upon the belief that meaning of a word can be dissected into meaning components, called semantic features.

16. Predication analysis (述谓结构分析): Predication analysis is a new approach for sentential meaning analysis. Predication is usually considered an important common category shared by propositions, questions, commands etc. Predication is to break down the sentence into their smaller constituents: argument (logical participant) and predicate (relation element). The "Predicate" is the major or pivotal element governing the argument.

17. Presupposition (先设前提): Presupposition is a semantic relationship or logical connection. A presupposes B (B is a prerequisite of A).

A: John's watch needs repairing, e. g. That is to say that e. g.

B: John has a watch.

If A is true, B must be true. If John's watch needs repairing, John must have a watch. If B is true, A is either true or false. e. g. If John

has a watch, it may or may not need repairing. If B is false, no truth value can be said about A. If John does not have a watch, nothing can be said about whether his watch needs repairing or not.

18. Entailment (蕴涵): Entailment can be illustrated by the following two sentences in which sentence A entails sentence B:

A: Mark married a blonde heiress.

B: Mark married a blonde.

In terms of truth value, the following relationships exist between two sentences: ①when A is true, B is necessarily true; ②When B is false, A is false, too; ③when A is false, B may be true or false; ④When B is true, A may be true or false. Entailment is basically a semantic relation or logical implication, but we have to assume co-reference of "He" in sentence A and sentence B, before we have A entail B.

补充练习

I. Indicate the following statements true or false.

1. The conceptualist view holds that there is no direct link between a linguistic form and what it refers to (i. e, between language and the real word); rather, in the interpretation of meaning they are linked through the mediation of concepts in the mind. ()

2. Sense and reference are two terms often encountered in the study of meaning. ()

3. There are words with more or less the same meaning used in different regional dialects. ()

4. Componential analysis is based upon the belief that the meaning of a word can not be dissected into meaning components, called semantic features. ()

5. One advantage of componential analysis is that by specifying the semantic features of certain words, it will be possible to show how these words are related in meaning. ()

6. The fact is the more commonly used word is, the more likely it has acquired only one meaning. ()

7. Although predicate and argument are the same kind of unit in terms of their componential make - up, they have different roles in the whole predication. ()

8. Componential analysis is a way proposed by the structural semanticists to analyze sentence meaning. ()

9. The grammaticality of a sentence is governed by the grammatical rules of the language. ()

10. Pairs of words that exhibit the reversal of a relationship the two items the are called opposites. ()

II . Fill in the blanks.

1. _____ can be simply defined as the study of meaning.

2. According naming theory words are just _____ or _____ for things.

3. _____ is based on the presumption that one can derive meaning from or reduce meaning to observable contexts.

4. Two kinds of context are recognized: _____ context and the _____ context.

5. Every utterance occurs in a particular _____ situation, the main components of which include, apart from the place and time of the utterance, the speaker and the hearer, the actions they are performing at the time, the various objects and event existed in the situation.

6. The contextulist view was further strengthened by Bloomfield, who drew on _____ psychology when trying to define the meaning of linguistic forms.

7. _____ means what is linguistic form refers to the real, physical world; it deals with the relationship between the linguistic element and the non - linguistic world of experience.

8. A _____ word, i.e., a word with several meaning, is the result

IV . Antonyms.

1. To which category does each of following pairs of antonyms belong?

up and down:

teacher and pupil:

middle - aged, mature and elderly:

let and rent:

warm and lukewarm:

2. Try to find out the opposite in meaning of the following words and to which category they belong to?

alive ———

big ———

give ———

cool ———

married ———

employee ———

husband ———

parent ———

V . To which category does each of the following pairs of synonyms belong?

autumn, fall ()

dad, father, malparent ()

economical, frugal, thrifty, mean, miserly, stingy ()

petrol, gasoline ()

windscreen, windshield ()

kid child, offspring ()

kick the bucket, pop off, die, pass away, decease ()

like, love, admire, adore, worship ()

rotten, addled, sour ()

escape, flee ()

room, chamber ()

torch, flashlight ()
 accuse of, charge... with, rebuke... for ()
 amaze, astound ()

VI. Identify the relations between the following pairs of sentences.

1. { John was a bachelor all his life.
 { John never married all his life.
2. { This is my first visit to Shanghai.
 { I have been to shanghai before.
3. { John bought two pens.
 { John bought two things.
4. { My sister has two boys.
 { My sister is a mother.
5. { I have no sisters.
 { My younger sister is tall.
6. The table is in a bad temper.

VI. Try to analyze the following sentence in terms of predication and analysis.

1. The old man sells toys. ()
2. It is raining. ()
3. It is late. ()
4. Is the baby crying. ()
5. The flower smells sweet. ()

VI. Give the superordinate or the hyponyms to the following groups.

1. Superordinate:

Hyponyms: rose, dandelion, aster, tulip, daisy.

2. Superordinate: male human.

Hyponyms:

3. Superordinate:

Hyponyms: apple, orange, banana, strawberry, pineapple, peach.

4. Superordinate: furniture.

Hyponyms:

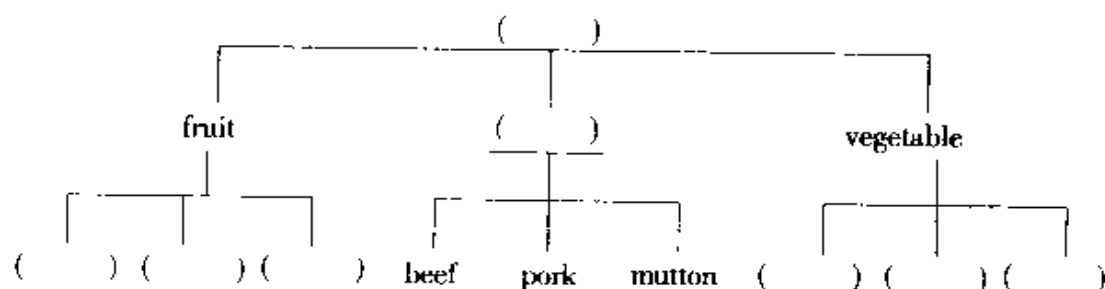
5. Superordinate:

Hyponyms: sparrow, crow, magpie robin, nightgale.

6. Superordinate: musical instrument.

Hyponyms:

7.



参考答案

I.

1. T 2. T 3. T 4. F 5. T 6. F
7. T 8. F 9. T 10. F

II.

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Semantics; | 2. names, labels; |
| 3. Contextualism; | 4. the 'situational, linguistic; |
| 5. spationtemporal; | 6. behaviorist; |
| 7. Reference; | 8. polysemic; |
| 9. Antonymy; | 10. Homonymy; |

III .

1. B 2. C 3. C 4. C 5. B

IV .

1. complementary antonyms; Relational opposites; Gradable antonyms; Relational antonyms; Gradable antonyms;
2. dead (complementary antonyms);
small (complementary antonyms);
take (Relational opposites);
warm (Gradable antonyms);
single (complementary antonyms);
employer (Relational opposites);
wife (Relational opposites);
child (Relational opposites).

V .

Dialectal synonyms; stylistic synonyms; synonyms that differ in their emotive or evaluative meaning;

Dialectal synonyms; Dialectal synonyms;
stylistic synonyms; Stylistic synonyms;
synonyms that differ in their emotive or evaluative meaning;
collocative synonyms; semantically different synonyms;
stylistic synonyms; Dialectal synonyms;
collocational synonyms; semantically different synonyms.

VI .

1. synonymous; (John was a bachelor all his life is the same with John never married all his life).
2. inconsistent; (This is my first visit to shanghai *inconsists* I have been to Shanghai before.)

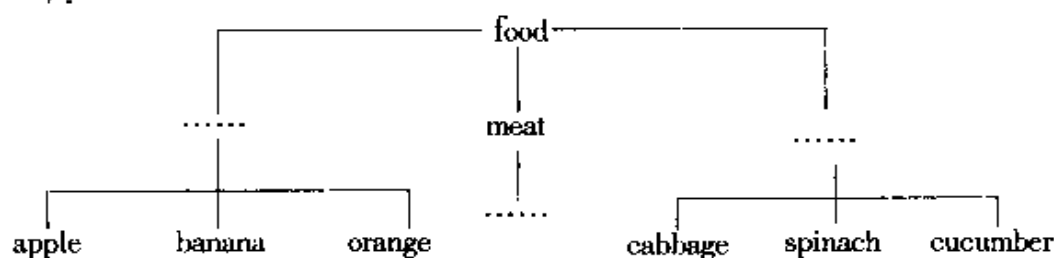
3. entails; (Tom bought two pens entails Tom bought two things.)
4. presupposes; (My sister has two boys presupposes my sister is a mother.)
5. contradiction; (I have no sisters entails I have a younger sister. It is contradiction.)
6. anomalous; (This sentence is absurd in the sense that it presupposes a contradiction because the abstract notion temper can not be harbored by the inanimate subject table.)

VII.

1. Two – place predication. Man and toys and the predicate (SELL);
2. No – place predication.
3. No – place predication.
4. One – place predication. BABY (SLEEP).
5. One – place predication. FLOWER (SMELL).

VIII.

1. flower;
2. bachelor, father, son, pap, pope.
3. Fruit;
4. bed, table, desk, wardrobe, dresser, sofa, chair;
5. bird;
6. flute, piano, trumpet, violin.
- 7.



Chapter 6 Pragmatics

(第六章 语 用 学)

要点提示

1. 主要内容：语用学与传统语义学之间的关系。语境、话语意义、言语行为理论、会话原则。

2. 主要概念：语用学、语境、句子意义、话语意义、表述句、行为句、言内行为、言外行为、言后行为、言外行为的化分、言语行为理论、合作原则、会话含义。

本章概述

一、语用学

作为一门年青的学科，语用学的定义在形式上是有多种的，但实质却只有一个，那就是承认语用学在本质上是一种意义研究，是一种将语言置于使用的语境中去的意义研究，也可以将它理解为它是从说话者和听说者的角度，把人们使用语言的行为看作受各种社会规约制约的行为。对特定语境中，特定话语的研究说明了语境可能影响话语解释的各个方面，从而建立了语用规则。

语用学可以说是对语义学进行深入研究的产物。语言学家在把50年形成的语义学研究推向纵深时，也发现了一些难以解释的新问题：语义学要不要包括受语境制约的话语意义？例如，“Would you like some more coffee?”这句话，表面上是在问听话者要不要再来些咖啡，但在特定的语境里，可能却含有主人提醒客人，“时间不早了，您该走了”的含义。对这种特定含义的研究就导致了语用

学的产生。可以看出语义学和语用学都是研究意义的,但它们是处在两个不同层面上的研究。英国语言学家利奇(G·N Leech)对语义学和语用学对意义的研究做了非常有意思的区分:语义学研究的句子意义是回答“为表达什么意义”的问题,而语用学研究的话语意义是回答“你说……想表达什么意义”的问题。

1. 语境

语境是语用学研究中的关键概念,因为语境在很大程度上决定着话语意义或话语意义的正确理解。因此语境可以理解为交际双方共同拥有的知识。

我们一般把语境分为“上下文”和“情景语境”两类。“上下文”语境是指语篇中的上文和下文,即某一词语或话语的前后左右相伴的词语,“情景”语境是指话语说出的前因后果。说话人、听话人双方的关系、双方共同的背景知识、典故、言语意图等。

语境这一概念是马林诺夫斯基在1923年提出来的。他将语境分为两大类,一是“文化语境”(context of culture),指说话者生活于其中的社会文化,另一个是“情景语境”(context of situation),指言语行为发生时的具体情境。

对语境这一重要概念应包括哪些因素,学者们虽说法不一,但最基本、最重要的有以下三类:(1)上下文。虽重点应在上文,因为已经说出来,然而下文也一样重要,因为它能对上文进行补充、确认、更正、说明、转折等作用。(2)发生言语行为的实际情境。(3)某个言语社团的社会文化。

2. 句子意义与话语意义

句子意义是抽象的,是按语法规则生成的,是静态的。

话语意义是指在句子意义的基础之上,是句子意义在特定语境中的具体化,它体现了说话人的意图和目的,它是动态的。

二、言语行为理论

“言语行为”理论是由英国牛津大学道德哲学教授奥斯汀(John Austin)建立的。他认为人们说话时不是传递信息或描述物体,通常是言语本身即是一种行为,即以言行事,例如:“我答应

……”，“我打赌……”，“就叫她小芳吧！”之类的句子就是典型的“行事句”。

“行事话语”、“述事话语”、“言内行为”、“言外行为”、“言后行为”以及塞尔勒的关于言外行为的五大分类构成了言语行为理论的核心。

表述句是指各种陈述，用来描写某一件事件、过程或状态，有真假之分。

“言内行为”指的是用句子来叙述、报告、描写。言内行为指话语过程本身，诸如：句法、词汇与发言等。

“言外行为”是指说话过程中通过话语的一些约定俗成的关联力量进行陈述承诺等。说话带有目的性。

“言后行为”指的是行为本身就是讲话的结果，即讲话所产生的情感、思想、行动等的某种反应。

三、会话原则（合作原则）

美国哲学家格赖斯提出的会话原则旨在解释会话含义、会话目的的最高原则是合作。

会话是人们在交际过程中的对话。美国逻辑学家和哲学家 P·格赖斯在对会话进行考察之后认为，会话受到一定条件的制约，为了使人们的交谈不至于成为一连串的、不连贯的“胡言乱语”，会话双方或多方，需要向一个共同的目的（或一组目的）互相配合地做出努力。这就要求大家要遵守一定的原则，这就是格赖斯所称的“合作原则”，它包括四条准则：

1) 量的准则 (the maxim of quantity)：说出的话语所含的信息量既不能太多，也不能太少，只要满足交谈目的的信息量即可

2) 质的准则 (the maxim of quality)：说出的话尽可能真实，有证可查，至少是自己信以为真的话。

3) 关联准则 (the maxim of relation)：说出的话语要切题，不说与主题、论题或话题无关的话。

4) 方式准则 (the maxim of manner)：说话清楚明白，简练且有条理，避免含混和歧义。

对这些准则的公开违反，就会导致会话含义。所谓会话含义是指说话的言外之意，它往往是说话人通过故意违反某一条准则而获得这种听者能懂的暗含之意。含有会话含义的话语需具有三个条件：1) 双方具有一定共有的知识。2) 说者对准则的违反一次不超过一个。3) 双方都有或不反对含混、双关、歧义、曲言、讽刺、比喻、含射、夸张等幽默手法。

【名词解释（汉）】

1. 语用学 (pragmatics): “语用学”是上个世纪 60、70 年代兴起的语言学的一个新的分支，它所研究的是语言同其使用者之间的关系，即在一定的交际环境中如何使用语言，包括说出和理解实际的话语两个方面。“语用学”的研究范围包括言语行为、会话含义、会话结构等方面。

2. 语境 (context): 语境是语用学研究中的关键概念，因为语境在很大程度上决定着话语意义或话语意义的正确理解。因此，语境可以理解为交际双方共同拥有的知识。我们一般把语境分为“上下文”和“情景”语境两类。“上下文”语境是指语篇中的上文和下文，即某一词语或话语的前后左右相伴的词语，“情景”语境是指话语说出的前因后果。说话人和听话人双方的关系、双方共同的背景知识、典故、言语意图等。

3. 句子意义 (sentence meaning): 句子意义是抽象的，是按语法规则生成的，是静态的。

4. 话语意义 (utterance meaning): “话语意义”是指在句子意义的基础之上，是句子意义在特定语境中的具体化。它体现了说话人的意图和目的，它是动态的。

5. 表述句 (constatives): 表述句是指各种陈述，其作用是描写某一事件、过程或状态，有真假之分。

6. 行为句 (performatives): 行为句是用来实施某种行为的。说话本身就是在做一件事，因此无真假之别，只有是否合适之分。

7. 言内行为 (locutionary act): 言内行为指的是用句子来叙述、报告、描写。言内行为指话语过程本身，诸如：句法、词汇与发

言等。

8. 言外行为 (illocutionary art): 言外行为是指说话过程中通过话语的一些约定俗成的关联力量进行陈述、承诺等, 说话带有目的性。

9. 言后行为 (perlocutionary art): 言后行为指的是行为本身就是讲话的结果。即讲话所产生的情感、思想、行动等的某种反应。

10. 言外行为的化分 (the classification of illocutionary art): 美国加州大学伯克利分校的哲学教授塞尔勒 (John·R·Searle) 进一步发展了奥斯汀的言语行为理论, 将言外行为整理规范化为五种:

- 1) 表述句 (representations): 说话者保证所表述的命题是真的。
- 2) 指令句 (directive): 说话者企图让听话人做某件事。
- 3) 受约句 (commissives): 说话者保证将来采取某些行动。
- 4) 表情句 (expressives): 表达说话者的一种心理状态。
- 5) 宣布句 (declarations): 说话者的话将引起规约事态的变化。

11. 言语行为理论 (speech act theory): 言语行为理论是由英国牛津大学哲学教授奥斯汀 (John Austin) 建立的。他认为人们说话时不只是传递信息或描述物体, 通常是言语本身即是一种行为, 即以言行事, 例如: “我答应……”, “我打赌……”, “就叫她小芳吧!” 之类的句子就是典型的行事句。

“行事话语”、“述事话语”、“言内行为”、“言外行为”、“言后行为”以及塞尔勒的关于言外行为的五大分类构成了言语行为理论的核心。

12. 合作原则 (co-operative principle/cp): 会话是人们在交际过程中的对话。美国逻辑学家和哲学家 P·格赖斯在对会话进行考察之后认为, 会话受到一定条件的制约, 为了使人们的交谈不致于成为一连串的、不连贯的“胡言乱语”, 会话双方或多方, 需要向一个共同的目的 (或一组目的) 互相配合地做出努力。这就要求大家要遵守一定的原则, 这就是格赖斯所称的“合作原则”, 它包括四条准则:

1) 量的准则 (the maxim of quantity): 说出的话语所含的信息量既不能太多, 也不能太少, 只要满足交谈目的的信息量即可。

2) 质的准则 (the maxim of quality): 说出的话尽可能真实, 有证可查, 至少是自己信以为真的话。

3) 关联准则 (the maxim of relation): 说出的话语要切题, 不说与主题、论题或话题无关的话

4) 方式准则 (the maxim of manner): 说话清楚明白, 简练且有条理, 避免含混和歧义。

13. 会话含义 (the conversational implicature): 会话含义指话语的言外之意, 往往是说话人通过故意违反某一准则而获得这种听者能懂的暗含之意。含有会话含义的话语, 即说者能说、听者能懂的话语, 需具有以下三个条件: 1) 双方具有一定共有的知识。2) 说者对准则的违反一次不超过一个。3) 双方都有或不反对含混、双关、歧义、讽刺、比喻、夸张、幽默等手法。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Pragmatics (语用学): Pragmatics is a comparatively new branch of study in the area of linguistics; its development and establishment in the 1960s and 1970s resulted mainly from the expansion of the study of linguistics, especially that of semantics. A general definition of pragmatics is the study of how speakers of a language use sentences to effect successful communication. The scope of pragmatic study includes "speech act theory", "context", "principle of conversation" etc.

2. Context (语境): The notion of context is essential to the pragmatic study of language. It is generally considered as constituted by the speaker and the hearer. The shared knowledge is of two types: the knowledge of language they use, and the knowledge about the world, including the general knowledge about the world and the specific knowledge about the situation in which linguistic communication is taking place.

3. Sentence meaning (句子意义): Sentence meaning refers to a sentence and is a grammatical concept, and the meaning of a sentence is often studied as the abstract, intrinsic property of the sentence itself in terms of predication.

4. Utterance meaning (话语意义): Utterance refers to a sentence as what people actually utter in the course of communication. It becomes an utterance and it should be considered in the situation in which it is actually uttered (or used).

5. Constatives (表述句): Constatives are statements that either state or describe, and are thus verifiable and constatives bearing the truth - value.

6. Performatives (行为句): Performatives are sentences that do not state a fact or describe a state and are not verifiable, in other words, performatives are utterance that "do things".

7. Locutionary act (言内行为): A locutionary act is the act of uttering words, phrase, clauses. It is the act of conveying literal meaning by means of syntax, lexicon and phonology.

8. Illocutionary act (言外行为): An illocutionary act is the act of expressing the speaker's intention; it is the act performed in saying something.

9. Perlocutionary act (言后行为): A perlocutionary act is the act performed by or resulting from saying something; it is the act performed by saying something.

10. The classification of illocutionary acts (言外行为的化分): The classification of illocutionary act is suggested and formulated by John. R. Searle, the student of John Austin. According to Searle, speech acts fall into true general categories and each type has a common, general purpose:

1) representatives: stating or describing, saying what the speaker believes to be true.

2) directives: trying to get the hearer to do something.

3) commissives: committing the speaker himself to some future course of action.

4) expressives: expressing feeling or attitude towards an existing state.

5) declarations: bring about immediate changes by saying something.

11. Speech act theory (言语行为理论): The "speech act theory", proposed by J. Austin and his student J. Searle, is a theory about language used to "do things". Typical utterances are: "I do", "I name the ship Elizabeth", "I bet you six pence it will rain tomorrow". In these cases the uttering of the relevant words is the leading event, without the action specified can not be done.

The concept of constatives performatives, the locutionary act, the illocutionary act, the perlocutionary act and the five categories of illocutionary act suggested and formulated by J·R·Searle constitute the speech act theory.

12. Co-operative principle/cp (合作原则): The "co-operative principle" (or cp), proposed and formulated by P. Grice, a pragmatic hypothesis, is about that the participants must first of all be willing to cooperate; otherwise, it would not be possible for them to carry on the talk. The principle has the following for maxims:

1) The maxim of quantity:

- a. Make your contribution as informative as required.
- b. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

2) The maxim of quality:

- a. Do not say what you believe to false.
- b. Do not say for which you lack adequate evidence.

3) The maxim of relation; Be relevant

4) The maxim of manner:

- a. Avoid obscurity of expression.
- b. Avoid ambiguity.
- c. Be brief.
- d. Be orderly.

13. Conversational implicature (会话含义): "Conversational implicature", according to P. Grice, refers to the extra meaning not contained in the utterance, understandable to the listener only when he shares the

speaker's knowledge or knows why and how he violates intentionally one of the four maxims of the CP.

补充练习

I . Indicate the following statements true or false.

1. A sentence is a grammatical concept, and the meaning of a sentence is often studied as the abstract, intrinsic property of the sentence itself in terms of a predication. ()
2. Utterance is based on sentence meaning; it is the realization of the abstract meaning of a sentence in a real situation of communication, or simply in a context. ()
3. Performatives, on the other hand, were sentences that stated a fact or described a state, and were verifiable. ()
4. As the process of communication is essentially a process of conveying meaning in a certain context, pragmatics can also be regarded as a kind of meaning study. ()
5. Gradually Linguists found that it would be impossible to give an adequate description of meaning if the context of language use was left considered. ()
6. What essentially distinguishes semantics and pragmatics is whether in the study of meaning the context of use is considered. ()
7. Without the shared knowledge both by the speaker and the hearer, linguistic communication would not be possible, and without considering such knowledge, linguistic communication can not be satisfactorily accounted for in a semantic sense. ()
8. A perlocutionary act is the act of expressing the speaker's intention. ()
9. An illocutionary act is the consequence of or the change brought about by the utterance. ()
10. According to Paul Grice's idea, in making conversation, the

participants must first of all be willing to cooperate; otherwise, it would not be possible for them to carry on the talk. ()

II . Fill in the blanks.

1. As the process of communication is essentially a process of conveying meaning in a certain context, _____ is a comparatively new branch of study in the area of linguistics.

2. _____ places the study of meaning in the context in which language is used, and this view is often considered as the initial effort to study meaning in a pragmatic sense.

3. The notion of _____ is essential to the pragmatic study of language.

4. If we take it as something a speaker utters in a certain situation with a certain purpose, then we are treating it as an _____.

5. Utterance is based on _____; it is the realization of the abstract meaning of a sentence in a real situation of communication, or simply in a context.

6. A _____ analysis of the utterance will reveal what the speaker intends to do with the context in which it is uttered.

7. Traditionally philosophers had been interested in the _____ of sentence, i.e, how to judge whether a sentence is true or false; they believed that a statement was used either to state a fact or to describe a state of affairs.

8. _____ were sentences that either state or describe, and were thus verifiable.

9. _____ were sentences that did not state a fact or describe a state, and were not verifiable.

10. All the acts that belong to the same category share the same purpose or the same _____, but they differ in their strength or force.

II. Mark the choice that can be best fitted.

1. What kind of function does the sentence "How do you do?" have?
A. Directive
B. Phatic
C. Informative
D. Evaluative
2. The function of the sentence "Water boils at 100 degrees centigrade" is _____.
A. interrogative
B. directive performative
C. informative
D. phatic
3. The function of the sentence "A nice day, isn't it?" is _____.
A. directive
B. Informative
C. performative
D. phatic
4. In which branch of linguistic studies scholars frequent quote the following classical examples? "I do", "I name this ship Elizabeth", "I give the bequeath my watch to my brothers", "I bet you six pence it will rain tomorrow" etc.
A. Semantics
B. Sociolinguistics
C. Pragmatics
D. Psycholinguistics
5. In the sentence "You have left the door wide open." the speaker has expressed his intention of speaking. i. e, asking someone to close the door. This intention of speaking belongs to _____.
A. locutionary
B. illocutionary
C. speech
D. perlocutionary

V. Answer the following questions as comprehensively as possible, giving examples if necessary.

1. Why must we distinguish using language to do something and using language in doing something?
2. How is the notion of context is interpreted?
3. How are sentence meaning and utterance meaning related, and how

do they differ?

参考答案

I .

1. T 2. T 3. F 4. T 5. F
6. T 7. F 8. F 9. F 10. T

II .

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. pragmatics; | 2. The contextual view; |
| 3. context; | 4. utterance; |
| 5. sentence meaning; | 6. pragmatic; |
| 7. truth - value; | 8. constatives; |
| 9. Performatives; | 10. illocutionary point. |

III .

1. B 2. C 3. C, D 4. C 5. B

IV .

1. There is a wide variety of possible uses of language, but before we survey these various uses, we must first distinguish between using language to do something and using language in doing something. When we focus on what people use language to do, we focus on what a person is doing with words in particular situations; we focus on the intentions, purposes, beliefs, and desires that a speaker has in speaking.

2. context is regarded as constitute by all kinds of knowledge assumed to be shared by the speaker and the hearer .

3. Utterance - meaning is based on sentence - meaning; the former is concrete and context - dependent and the latter is abstract and decontextualized.

Chapter 7 Historical Linguistics

(第七章 历史语言学)

要点提示

1. 主要内容：语言发展的三个历史阶段、语音变化、形态、句法、语义、词汇变化、元音大交替、印欧语系、汉藏语系、语言变化的原因、语音吸收、同化、规则简化、细化、内部借用、社会、心理、文化传播因素。

2. 主要概念：历史语言学、历时语言学、元音大交替、词尾脱落、插入音、首字母缩略词、混合法、缩写法、略写法、逆向构词法、语义广义化、原始语、语系、同源词、语音同化、内部借用。

本章概述

本章主要研究了语言的发展及其变迁规律，重新组合语言学的历史的方法和技巧，属于同一语系的语言之间的关系以及语言变化的原因。

历史语言学是语言学的一个分支，研究语言变化，它涉及到各种语言的历史发展以及语言变化的进程。这对我们研究语言、理解语言及人类的语言能力很有用处。通过对语言变化史的研究，我们可以对人类语言的形成和发展规律、各族语言的亲缘关系等有一个深刻的认识。另外，我们还可以通过研究语言的过去和现在，对语言发展的未来做出推测，并且确定社会、文化以及心理等因素是如何影响语言的发展变化的。

历史语言研究语言在不同历史时期的变化，这与我们在第一章提到的历时语言学研究相似，与共时语言学形成对比。

一般来讲，语言变化是普遍的、持续不断的，相当程度来讲是规则、有系统的。语言变化发生在语法的各个层面，如语音、形态、词汇、语义等。在语言变化过程中，音位、词素、单词、和语法规则等可能被借用、增加、丢失或改变；同时，词汇的意义可能被扩大、缩小或转化。

尽管语言变化具有普遍性和不可避免性，但是语言的历史发展并非一夜之间便能完成的。它是一个缓慢的、逐渐发展的过程，在同一代人之间，这种变化几乎是察觉不到的。否则的话，人与人之间将无法进行交流。

语言学家把语言的发展分成不同阶段。这是一种任意的、传统的分类方式，其目的是为了用一种便利的、实际的方法来研究语言。例如，语言学家把英语的发展分为三个阶段：古英语阶段、中古英语阶段和现代英语阶段。现代操英语本族语者发现，他们只能部分上理解中古英语，而古英语则几乎像外语一样让人无法理解。如：

古英语：And seaxan pā sige geslōgan.

(And saxons won the victory.)

中古英语：(乔叟的“玫瑰传奇”)

Many men sayn that in sweveninges.

(Many men say that in dreams.)

下面我们分别介绍一下这三个阶段。

1. 古英语 (约 449—1100)

古英语源自于 5 世纪中叶时来自欧洲北部的，入侵大不列颠各岛的盎格鲁、萨克逊人所操的语言。许多英语中的基本词汇都来自于古英语。如：mann (man)、wif (wife) 等。

古英语中单词的读音与其现代读音有很大差别。形态上，几乎有半数以上的古英语中的名词都是有屈折变化的，用来表明名词的主格、所有格、与格及宾格形式。另外，动词还要加上后缀来表明时态。如上例中 geslōgan 中的“an”即表时态。句法上，古英语中，

句子的动词是置于主语之前的。

2. 中古英语 (约 1100—1500)

中古英语深受诺曼底占领者所操的法语的影响。1066 年法国诺曼底公爵征服者威廉侵占英国。此后的 150 年间, 法语成为英国统治阶级的官方语言。

13 世纪又重新兴起的英语已经与原来的古英语大不相同了, 它在词汇和语法上已大大受到了法语的影响。如: army, court, defense 等都来自于法国统治阶级的语言。

随着法语与英语的逐渐融合, 中古时期的伦敦方言逐渐开始被当作一种国家标准化语言来使用。这种情况一直持续到现代。

3. 现代英语 (约 1500—现在)

现代英语是英语自身发展和 15 世纪晚期传入英国的欧洲文艺复兴运动渗透结合的产物。就教育和文化而言, 这场文艺复兴运动的直接影响就是拉丁语作为一种文学语言的复苏。但是在英语方面, 拉丁语的影响并没有法语那么重大深远。在伊莉莎白时期, 莎士比亚的剧本和米尔顿的诗歌都是用英语写成的。

在文艺复兴后期, 英帝国在世界事务中的作用越来越大, 它在世界许多地方建立了殖民地。英帝国的兴起及其移民化进程的成功, 使英语遍布全球。到了十九世纪时, 英语逐渐成为美国、加拿大、澳大利亚和新西兰等国家和地区的居民的母语。当今时代, 现代英语被广泛运用, 已经成为一种重要的国际间进行交流的工具。

英语语言系统的变化。

语言变化基本上是语法方面的变化, 这种变化发生在语法的各个方面, 包括语音、形态句法、词汇和语义系统方面的变化。一般来说, 语音和词汇方面的变化要更为明显一些。但是, 语言变化随语言不同而不同。各种语言之间并没有一个统一的语言变化系统。就英语而言, 其语音系统经历的变化要比其他部分更为剧烈一些。

英语语音的变化包括元音的变化, 语音的丢失, 增加与演变。

英语中一个最显著的变化之一是元音大交替。这是一种有系统、有规则的变化, 大约在 1400 年到 1600 年间, 中古英语中七个长元音和紧元音经历了以下的变化。

中古英语	现代英语
five [fi:v] ---->	[faiv]
mouse [mu:ɪs] ---->	[maʊs]
feet [fe:t] ---->	[fi:t]
mood [mo:d] ---->	[mu:d]
break [brɛ:ken] ---->	[breik]
broke [brɔ:ken] ---->	[brəʊk]
name [nɑ:mə] ---->	[neim]

元音大交替是许多英语单词拼读不一致的主要根源。因为我们的拼写体系仍然保留着元音大交替以前词的拼写方式。

除了元音大交替之外，英语语音的演变还反映在音位的增加或丢失。例如，在古英语中有一软腭擦音/x/，所以 *nicht* 读作 /nixt/ (*night*)，而现在读作 /nait/，/x/ 音已经不存在了。又如，许多古英语中的名词的复数形式，不是在其词尾加 /-s/ 音而是加 /-i/ 音。因此 *goose* 的复数读为 /go:si/，这一读音规则现在已不存于英语语法中的音位系统中了。另外一种语音丢失是词尾脱落现象，即一个词的词尾的元音组成部分的脱落。如，*name* 古英语读作 /nɑ:mə/ 而现代英语中则读作 *name*/heim/。词尾脱落也影响了一些词的拼写，如 *helpe* 现在写为 *help*。语音的增加表现在语音的获得和插入。插入到一个单词中间的元音或辅音叫做插入音。这种插入现象至今仍然存在，尤其在个人语言中。如现代操英语者经常喜欢在发音时插入一个 /ə/ 音。古英语中插入音的单词举例如下。

spinle→spindle	emty→empty
glimse→glimpse	timer→timber.

另外，语音还可以转移。由于语音转移引起的语音变化称为语音变位。它包括两个邻近的音的位置的颠倒，如古英语中 *briad* 和 *hros* 已转移成 *bird* 和 *horse* 了。

如同语言的音位规则会发生变化一样，语言的形态规则也会发生变化。这一变化包括词缀的丢失与增加。许多这种变化是由于外国语言的影响。

古英语中有许多可改变单词的词性的派生词缀。如：古英语中

的名词加上 *baere* 后缀的话，将变为形容词，现代英语中已不再这样使用。又如：将形容词词干后加上后缀 “-yan” 就可以变成一个使役动词。这与现代英语中在形容词词干后加 “-en” 构成使役动词的方法相似。现代英语动词的构成方法是古英语遗留下来的痕迹，但这种方法现在已不能推而广之，只能局限在几个词中。

古英语的一个最显著的形态学变化是单词的性与格的标志的丢失。古英语把名词分为三个性：阳性，阴性和中性。这种分法并非与所指单词的性别有关，如 *stān* (stone) 为阳性，而 *gief* (gift) 和 *dēor* (wild animal) 则分别为阴性和中性。

古英语中的表示格的系统非常复杂。如下例所示 *stān* (stone) 的四个格形式。

格	单数形式	复数形式
主格	<i>stān</i> (stone)	<i>stan - as</i> (stones)
所有格	<i>stān - es</i> (stone's)	<i>stān - a</i> (stones')
与格	<i>stā - e</i> (stone)	<i>stān - um</i> (stones)
宾格	<i>stān</i> (stone)	<i>stān - as</i> (stones)

在古英语向中古英语的转化过程中，古英语经历了加长词干元音和减少某些特定词的后缀的变化。这样，原来表示单数、所有格和与格的复数形式的词缀逐渐消失。

英语在其发展过程中受外来语影响较大。很多英语来自于其他语言，许多外来语的词缀与英语单词组合构成新的单词。如法语词缀 *-able* 能使一个动词转化为形容词，*-ment* 可使动词转化为名词，词缀 “-ize” 的使用在当代比以前更为普遍，它可以加在一个名词或形容词之后构成动词“使——”。

如同语音和形态方面的变化一样，句法的变化也包括其句法规则的丢失、增加和变异。

古英语中，句法关系主要由句法组成部分来体现。句法规则中有这样一条就是，形容词词尾必须与核心词在格、数、性方面一致。这一规则随着名词的格、数、性的丢失而丢失。古英语中有双重否定表否定的规则。如：

And ne sealdest pū mē nāc fre ān ticcen . (And you never gave me a

child.) (现代英语)

And not gave you me never a kid.

在现代英语中, 这种用法已不存在, 除非说话者是未受过多少教育的人。

句法规则在丢失的同时也有所增加。其中之一是小品词移动规则。如现代英语中允许一些动词词组中的小品词置于宾语方面。如

John threw out the ball through the window.

John threw the ball out through the window.

另一条增加的规则是关于助动词和动词(主要动词)之间的区别的规则。在古英语中, 这两种动词都可以放在疑问句句首; 而在现代英语中, 只有助动词可以用于句首, 而主要动词则不可以了。

在莎士比亚时代以前, 否定句的构成是在句尾加“not”。大约16世纪以后, 除助动词外, 句子的否定变成了把 not 置于主要动词之前了。

如: I deny it not (莎氏以前)

I don't deny it. (现代英语)

现代英语中有比较严格的基本句型结构, 即 SVO 形式(主语 + 谓语 + 宾语)。但在古英语中, 由于单词有比较严格的各种格形式, 所以对于单词的顺序, 古英语的要求并不是很严格。句型结构可以包括 SVO、VSO、SOV 和 OSV 等形式。

一般而言, 一种语言的历史发展过程中, 最强有力的、又不断变化的部分是其词汇的变化。这种变化具有不可避免性。这是因为, 一方面, 社会不断发展, 生活方式不断变化。很多过时的词不断消亡, 同时新的词汇层出不穷。例如, 在莎士比亚的戏剧《罗米欧与朱丽叶》中曾使用 beseen (be suitable)、wot (know) 等词, 而现在这些已不再被人们使用。

词汇的增加主要是通过借用和创造来完成的。自从古英语起, 它就不断借用外来语, 尤其是在诺曼征服后, 法语大量涌入英语中, 成为英语词汇的一部分。法语开始时主要是在行政、司法和宗教领域为英语所借用, 后来又涉及到科技、文化、战争等领域。例如 government, royal, state, army 等。但是法语并不总是能够代替古

英语中的词，很多时候英语本族语言和法语是同时被使用的，如法语中的 pork, beef, veal, mutton and venison 分别用来指古英语中 swine, cow, calf, sheep 和 deer 的肉。有些情况下，法语借用词可以和英语本族语形成对比。如英语单词 theft 被用来指小的犯罪，而法语借用词 larceny 被用来指较严重的犯罪。

除法语外，英语还借用了拉丁语和希腊语、西班牙语、德语、汉语等许多外来语。

借用外来语只是增加英语词汇的一种方法，创新词也是增加词汇的方法。英语通过用复合法、派生法、首字母缩略法、混合法、略写法、逆向构词法、缩写法、创新法等方法使得英语词汇猛增。

1. 复合法：把两个或两个以上的单词组合成一个新的词汇单位的方法。如：sailboat。

2. 派生法：通过在词干、词根或单词上添加词缀的方法来构成新单词的方法。如：uglification。

3. 首字母缩略法：利用一个短语中的各个词的首字母构成新词的方法。如：UNESCO（即 United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization）联合国教科文组织。

4. 混合法：将两个词的首部或尾部连成一个新词的方法。如 smog（烟雾）来自于 smoke 和 fog 的组合。

5. 缩写法：用一个单词或词组的缩写形式来代表整个单词或词组从而构成一个新词的方法。如：TV（Television），Dr（doctor）。

6. 略写法：把一个长单词或词组的一个或几个音节截除所剩的缩略词构成新词的方法。如：zoo（zoological garden），sci - fi（science fiction）。

7. 逆向构词法：通过去掉一个现存的词的词缀而构成新词的方法。如：typewrite 来自于 typewriter。

8. 创新法：即创造新词的方法。经常是一种产品的品牌或商标的名称采用这种方法。而后这一品牌或商标名称成为英语中一普通词汇。如：Kleenox（卫生纸），kodak（胶卷），xerox（复印机）。

语言变化还包括语义的变化，即语义的扩大或缩小以及词义的转移。

词义的扩大指一个单词的意义比其原来的意义扩大了。如古英语中 *docga* 和中古英语中的 *dogge* 已指猎犬的意思，而现代英语中 *dog* 则可指所有的犬类动物；它的暗含意义还可以指一个不受人喜欢的人。又如，*bird* - 词以前仅指尺寸较小的家禽，而现在它可以指任何温血的、产蛋的、有羽毛的、带翅膀的脊椎动物。

词义的缩小指一个词的意义比其原来的意义缩小了。如古英语中的 *hund* (*hound*) 可指任何一种狗，而现代英语中，*hound* 只指一种特殊的狗，即猎犬。

词义的转移指一个词的意义失去了其原来的意义而获得了另外一个与原来的意义相关或不相关的意义。如：古英语中 “*a silly person*” 指的是一个幸福快乐的人，现代英语中指的是一个愚蠢的人。“*a nice person*” 指的是一个无知的人，现代英语则指善良的好人。

语言变化是具有普遍性的，并且是受一定规则约束的，有规律、有系统、并持续不断的。

语言虽有这么多的变化，但是没有人确切地知道语言为什么发生变化或如何变化。语言学家认为语言变化的原因可以从几个方面分析。

1. 语音同化

语音同化是指一个音受其毗邻的音的影响而发生音变，使其发音与毗邻的音相近，这一进程是基于生理机制引起的音位变化。在这一同化过程中，毗邻的两个音在发音部位和发音方式上逐渐趋同。或者发生漏音——两个毗邻的相似的音中的一个被丢失，如古英语中的 *Engla - land* 通过同化变为了 *England*。

语音同化的另一个例子是元音的鼻音化。英语中如果一个元音位于一个鼻辅音前时，一般元音要被鼻音化。如元音 /a/ 在 /an/ 中时，其发音被鼻辅音 /n/ 同位，变成了鼻音化元音 /ã/。

有时，语音的同化还可以导致形态学和词汇学上的变化。如 /k/ 音，在 *key* 中，发 /k/ 音时，位置要靠前些，以便发下一个音 /i/。而在 *car* 中，发 /k/ 音时，位置要靠后些，以便发下一个音 /a/。当 /k/ 在 *key* 中时，有些腭音化，为了省力起见，人们常把这

个腭音化的/k/音发成现代的塞擦腭音/tʃ/。后来，古英语中的 *ciese*, *cinn*, *cild* 等逐步演化为现代英语中的 *chese*, *chin* 和 *child*。

2. 语言规则的简化与统一

这是语言变化的另一个原因。这涉及到特殊的名词的复数形式的变化。例如，现代英语中有一小部分名词，在变为复数时，需要把它们清音、擦音浊音化。如 *leaf*→*leaves* 这代表了语言规则的复杂性。但现代说话者为省事起见，把这一规则部分统一化了，所以有 *handkerchief*→*handkerchiefs*, *hoof*→*hoofs* 这样的复数形式了。英语中有些外来词，其复数形式也属特殊类。如：*datum*→*data*, *agendum*→*agenda*, *curriculum*→*curricula*, *memorandum*→*memoranda*。出于同样的省事目的，人们逐渐把这些构成复数的规则简化。即用 *agendas*, *curriculums* 和 *memorandums* 来代替原来的复数形式。许多人还认为 *data* 本身和 *information* 一样，没有复数形式。通过规则的简化与统一，人们减少了记规则的负担。

3. 内部借用

引起语言变化的又一原因是旨在减轻记忆负担的语言规则的内部借用现象。如：通过对名词的复数形式的类推，人们把 *cow* 的复数形式表示为 *cows*，而不是以前的 *kine* 了。又如：英语动词的过去式不规则变化形式繁多，借用“ed”这一规则变化形式在当代英语中越来越普遍。内部借用代表了语言的语法系统不断适应变化了的状况。

4. 语言的细化

人们在使用语言时，为了避免出现模棱两可、含糊不清的词句，或者为了提高语言表达上的准确性，往往需要增加一些规则，致使语言规则的细化。例如：现代英语中，由于丢失了许多屈折词尾，因此它对句法中的词序要求极为严格。同时，介词等功能词的使用频率比以前也增加了。

从上面的几个原因可以看出，语言变化主要是在简化与细化规则中，在减轻记忆负担和保持交际清楚方面取得一个平衡。

5. 社会因素

除自身因素外，语言变化还有语言系统之外的社会环境的影

响。如侵略战争，殖民化政策，政府推行的语言规划政策和标准化运动。英语发展史上的一个典型的例子就是中古英语时期，法国对英国进行的诺曼底征服，使得法语对英语影响很大。

社会的政治、经济、疆域的变化，人与人之间的不断接触，以及操双语、洋泾浜语者和混血者等所使用的语言，所有这些因素都使得语言多样化。

6. 文化传播

虽然战争、侵略、殖民化进程以及社会经济扩张大大影响了语言发展。但是另外一个更为重要的因素却是代与代之间的持续不断的文化传播，社会生活不断发生变化，新的需求层出不穷。变化了的和变化着的社会、生活、观念和思维方式等需要人们更新表达方式，尤其是年轻的一代，更喜欢标新立异。例如，老一代常称冰箱为 icebox，而年轻一代则称其为 fridge。文化传播也导致了语言的多样化。

7. 儿童语言习得

儿童获得语言的方式构成了语言变化的又一大原因。研究表明，儿童并不是通过对语法规则的正规学习而掌握其母语的。他们往往自己组合语法规则，然后把它们运用到他们所听到的语言信息之中。他们的语法逐步发展，直到其语法结构接近了成人的语言的语法结构。但是，儿童的语法结构永远不会丝毫不差的照搬成人语法，他们往往更偏向于习得简化了的或者规则化的表述方式。例如：成人有时说：“It's I.”，有时在不太正式的场合说：“It's me.”，但是儿童倾向于使用非正式用语 “It's me”。因此，代代相传的语言演化也就自然呈现出简化或规则化趋势。

对语言的变化研究也称为历史比较语言学。它不仅涉及到一种语言的发展变化，而且还涉及到不同语言之间的亲缘关系。

世界上大约有 5000 多种语言。一些语言主要为本族人所使用，而另一些则传播比较广泛。例如，汉语拥有世界上最多的操本族语者，人口超过 12 亿。丹麦语仅有不足 5 百万的本族语者。英语大约有 4 亿以其为本族语者，但却是世界上使用最广的语言。在这五千种语言中，大约有 4000 种语言有其历史根源。语言学家们研究

发现，有些表面上毫不相干的语言之间实际上存在着亲缘关系，于是他们把这种亲缘关系称作语言的家族关系，并为各个语系勾画了家族谱系树以便对相关语言进行确认和分类。语言学家们采用比较重建法，确认并比较相似的语言形式，重新构建这些语言的原始形式。由于单词的意义和形式上的差别是任意的，那么两三种在音位、形态的形式和语义概念上有系统相似性的语言很可能有共同的祖先。

比较重建法的核心在于对同源词——即有共同祖先的词——的有系统的形式和意义上的相似性的研究，例如英语和德语就有同源词，如：

英语：mother father friend

德语：Mutter Vater Freund

到目前为止，语言学家们研究了 30 个左右语系。其中比较重要的有印欧语系、汉藏语系、澳斯特罗尼西亚语系、非亚语系。印欧语系有 150 种语言，包括许多的欧洲语言和印度次大陆的语言；汉藏语系包括 300 种东亚语言；澳斯特罗尼西亚语系包括分布在南半球的 1000 多种语言；非亚语系包括分布于非洲北部和西亚的 250 种语言。英语属于印欧语系，而汉语则属于汉藏语系。

印欧语系是世界上研究最早、最广泛的一种语系。1786 年，英国学者威廉·琼斯爵士发表一篇论文，认为梵语（印度的古老语言）和拉丁语、希腊语具有共同的来源，并且主张，其他欧洲语言也可能是同源的。30 年后，德国语言学家弗朗兹·鲍普和丹麦学者拉斯克也认为梵语、拉丁语、希腊语、波斯语、日耳曼语、立陶宛语和亚美尼亚语之间有着紧密联系。1822 年，德国学者格林在其论文中详细的说明了梵语、拉丁语、希腊语和日耳曼语之间的语音对应。吸引格林的不仅是这些语言的相似之处，而且还有它们的不同之处。格林对于历史语言学的主要贡献在于他用语音转移的方式解释了同源词之间的关系。格林指出在日耳曼语言的早期历史发展过程中一定发生了某些音韵变化，而这些变化没有发生在梵语、希腊语或拉丁语中。他指出日耳曼语，包括英语、荷兰语、德语，瑞典语、丹麦语，在其发展过程中发生了辅音变异现象。格林发现的

语音变化规律被称为格林定律。格林发现的辅音变异包括以下三对：

- a. $b \rightarrow p$ $d \rightarrow t$ $g \rightarrow k$
- b. $p \rightarrow f$ $t \rightarrow \theta$ $k \rightarrow x$ ($> h$)
- c. $bh \rightarrow b$ $dh \rightarrow d$ $gh \rightarrow g$

格林定律的有规律、有系统的属性，可用音位的自然类别表示如下：

- a. 浊音变清音
- b. 爆破清音变擦音
- c. 送气浊辅音变为不送气音

通过对多种语言的语音对应的研究，语言学家确认多数欧洲语言、波斯语、印度北部的语言属于同一印欧语系。通过运用比较方法，语言学家们重新组织了、构造了原始印欧语。

【名词解释（汉）】

1. 历史语言学 (Historical linguistics): 语言学的一个分支，研究语言的变化，即语言的历史发展过程。

2. 历时语言学 (Diachronic linguistics): 对不同历史阶段的不同语言侧面的变化的研究，与历史语言学研究相同。

3. 元音大交替 (Great Vowel Shift): 英语发展史上的一系列有系统的音变，涉及到七个长元音的变化，是许多英语单词拼读不一致的主要根源。

4. 词尾脱落 (Apocope): 英语发展过程中，位于词尾的元音组成部分的逐渐丢失。

5. 插入音 (Epenthesis): 在英语发展过程中，在一个词的中间插入的一个元音或辅音。

6. 首字母缩略词 (Acronym): 利用一个短语中的各个词的首字母组成的词。

7. 混合法 (Blending): 将组成复合词的两个词的部分音节省去后，将其中的首部或尾部连接成一个新词的过程。

8. 缩写词 (Abbreviation): 一个词或词组的被缩短了的形式，

能够代表整个的词或词组。

9. 略写法 (Clipping): 将一个较长单词的一个或几个音节截除后, 构成新词的方法。

10. 逆向构词法 (Back-formation): 将一个词原有的词尾去掉, 从而构成一个新词的方法。

11. 语义扩大化 (Semantic broadening): 一个词的词义在其发展过程中越来越广泛的过程。

12. 原始语 (Protolanguage): 一种语系的最初的语言形式, 这种形式现在已经不再存在。

13. 语系 (Family language): 具有共同来源的, 在历史发展过程中彼此相关的全部语言构成一个语系。

14. 同源词 (Cognate): 一种语言中的一个词在形式与意义上与另一种语言中的一个词相似, 这两个词叫做同源词。同源词所在的两种语言有着共同的来源。

15. 语音同化 (Sound assimilation): 指一个音受其毗邻的音的影响而发生音变, 使其发音与毗邻的音相近, 这是由生理机制引起的音位变化。

16. 内部借用 (Internal borrowing): 运用类推的方法, 把语法的一部分规则普遍应用开来, 从而减轻记忆负担, 这个过程被称为内部借用过程。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Historical linguistics (历史语言学): A subfield of linguistics that studies language change (or historical development) of language.

2. Diachronic linguistics (历时语言学): A term used in stead of historical linguistics to the study of language change at various points in time at various historical stage.

3. Great Vowel Shift (元音大交替): A series of systematic sound change in the history of English that involved seven long vowels and consequently led to one of the major discrepancies between English pronunciation and its spelling system.

4. Apocope (词尾脱落): The deletion of a word - final vowel sound.

5. Epenthesis (插入音): The insertion of a consonant or vowel sound to the middle of a word.

6. Acronym (首字母缩略词): A word created by combining the initials of a number of words.

7. Blending (混合法): A process of forming a new word by combining parts of others words.

8. Abbreviation (缩写词): A shortened form of a word or phrase which represents the complete form.

9. Clipping (略写词): A kind of abbreviation of otherwise longer words or phrases.

10. Back - formation (逆向构词法): A process by which new words are formed by taking away the suffix of an existing word.

11. Semantic broadening (语义扩大化): The process in which the meaning of a word becomes more general or inclusive than its historical earlier denotation.

12. Protolanguage (原始语): The original form of a language family which has ceased to exist.

13. Family language (语系): A group of historically (or genetically) related languages that have developed from a common ancestral language.

14. Cognate (同源词): A word in one language which is similar in form and meaning to a word in another language because both languages have descended from a common source.

15. Sound assimilation (语音同化): The physiological effect of one sound on another.

16. Internal borrowing (内部借用): The application of a rule from one part of the grammar to another part of the grammar by analogy to its earlier operation.

补充练习

I. Indicate the following statements true or false.

1. Historical linguistics equals to the study of synchronic study. ()
2. Language change results in significant amount of communication breakdown among speakers of different generation. ()
3. Generally speaking, the period of Middle English lasted longer than the period of Old English but shorter than that of Modern English. ()
4. In Middle English, suffixes were added to verbs to indicate tense, such as “-an” on the verb “geslógan”. ()
5. Syntactically, the verb of an old sentence precedes rather than follows the subject. ()
6. During European Renaissance movement, Latin enjoyed the same overwhelming prestigious cultural position as the Norman French of the earlier period held in English. ()
7. The insertion of a consonant or vowel sound to the middle of a word still occurs in the present day English. ()
8. Some modern words come from the morphological change of the Old English. For example, “read” comes from “readable”, and “agree” comes from agreeable. ()
9. Through the semantic broadening or narrowing, the meaning of a word is changed constantly. ()
10. Old English had a gender marking system which divided nouns according to sex. For example, man was marked masculine while wifman (女人) was marked feminine. ()

II. Fill in each of the following blanks with one word.

1. The history of English language can be divided into period of

... and ...

2. Middle English was deeply influenced by ... in vocabulary and grammar.

3. The ... movement separated the period of Middle English from that of Modern English.

4. One of the most obvious change in English is the systematic and regular change in the ... sounds.

5. During the period of Middle English, a remarkable shuffle, known as the ... modified the entire vowel harmony of the English language.

6. The most widely – spread morphological change in the historical development of English are the loss and addition of ...

7. There are two ways in the lexical expansion. One is ..., the other is ...

8. In Old English nearly half of the nouns are inflective to mark ... and accusative cases.

9. The original form of a language family that has ceased to exist is called the ...

10. As a result of Norman Conquest of 1066, vast quantities of ... words were added to the English vocabulary.

11. In general, linguistic change in the ... system and the ... of a language is more noticeable than that in other systems of the grammar.

III . In each of the following questions, there are four choices. Decide which one would be the best answer to the question or best complete the sentence.

1. The discovery of Indo – European language family began with the work of the British scholar ...

A. Sir William Jones

B. Rasmus Rask

C. Franz Bopp

D. Jacob Grimm

2. The syntactic distinction between the main verbs and the auxiliary verbs most probably existed in the _____.
A. 1419 B. 55 A. D. C. 1066 D. 1616
3. _____ is the language of Angles, Saxons and Jutes who invaded Britain after AD 450.
A. Old English B. Old Norse
C. Celtic D. Middle English
4. In 1200, the official language in England was
A. Old English B. French
C. Middle English D. Celtic
5. Language change is essentially a matter of change in the _____.
A. Grammar B. vocabulary
C. Syntactic change D. sound system
6. Canterbury Tales written by Geoffrey Chaucer was the most memorable writing in the _____ period.
A. Old English B. Middle English
C. late Modern English D. early Modern English
7. The London speech that was illustrated in Shakespeare's writing was generally termed _____.
A. Middle English B. early Old English
C. early Modern English D. Old English
8. Old English dates back to the mid - fifth century when Anglo - Saxons, the speakers of _____ invaded the British isles from Northern Europe.
A. Englisc B. Norman French
C. Latin D. Norse
9. The most obvious way in which Modern English differs lexically from old English is in the number of _____.
A. borrowed words B. created words
C. syntactic rules D. sound loss

10. Language spoken in the Northern part of Africa and western Asia is _____ language family.

- A. Indo – European B. Sino – Tibetan
C. Austronesian D. Afroasiatic

IV. Answer the following questions in English.

1. Indicate what kind of sound change has taken place in the following words.

- (1) nicht [nixt] → night
(2) hlud [xlud] → loud
(3) name [namə] → name [neim]
(4) bridd → bird

2. Is children's language governed by rules? Why or why not?

3. Rewrite the following sentences and indicate what kind of syntactic change has taken place.

- (1) If your messenger find him not there.
(2) And not gave you never a child.
(3) He hine geseah.
(he him saw)

4. Explain the purpose of reconstruction in historical linguistics and the method by historical linguists.

参考答案

I.

1. F 2. F 3. F 4. F 5. T
6. F 7. T 8. F 9. T 10. F

II.

1. Old English, Middle English, Modern English
2. Norman French 3. European Renaissance

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 4. vowel | 5. Great Vowel Shift |
| 6. affixes | 7. borrowing, word formation |
| 8. nominative, genitive, dative | 9. protolanguage |
| 10. French | 11. sound, Vocabulary |

III .

- | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|-------|------|------|
| 1. A | 2. D | 3. A | 4. B | 5. A | 6. B |
| 7. C | 8. A | 9. A | 10. D | | |

IV .

1. (1) Change: 1) the [x] was lost; 2) the short vowel [i] became [ai];

(2) Change: 1) the [x] was lost; 2) the long vowel [u:] became [au];

(3) Change: 1) the [ə] was lost; 2) the long vowel [a:] became [ei];

(4) Change: It involves the movement of [r] sound to the left of the vowel sounds and the deletion of "d" in the spelling.

2. Children language is governed by rules. The way children acquire the language constitutes a basic cause for language change. They acquire their native language not through formal instruction of grammatical rules. They usually construct their personal grammars by themselves and generalize rules from the linguistic information they hear. Their grammar never models exactly after that the adult speech community. They tend to simplify and regularize grammatical rules. For example, children always say "mans", "foots", "gooses" instead of men, feet, geese.

3. (1) Rewrite: If your messenger does not find him there.

Prior to Shakespeare's time, a negative sentence could be formed by merely adding "not" at the end of an affirmative sentence. However, after the sixteenth century the grammar of English had changed so that "not" appeared before main verbs and only auxiliary verbs had to be used in nega-

tion.

(2) Rewrite: And you never gave me a child.

Old English syntax contained a double – negation rule, which would negate a sentence with both negators of “ne” (“not”) and “næfre” (“never”)

(3) Rewrite: He saw him.

Old English had an elaborate system of case marking through overt morphological changes, which, consequently allowed its word order to be somewhat more variable than that of Modern English. Because modern English has a much weaker case marking system, its sentences have to follow a basic order of SVO (subject + verb + object). In Old English, however, word order included SVO, VSO, SOV and OSV.

4. Historical linguistics aims at establishing through the method of comparative reconstruction, the genetic relationship between and among various languages based on the evidence of systematic form – meaning resemblance in cognate items, and thereby to reconstruct the protolanguage of a language family.

Chapter 8 Sociolinguistics

(第八章 社会语言学)

要点提示

1. 问题：语言变异、方言及方言的社会功能、双言与双语现象、少数民族方言、社会方言、禁忌语、委婉语。

2. 概念：社会语言学、言语社区、社会方言、语言变化、语域、标准语、通用语、皮钦语、双语、双言、语码转换、使用域、少数民族方言、禁忌语、委婉语。

本章概述

社会语言学是兴起于 20 世纪 60 年代的一门边缘学科，它是语言学与社会相结合的产物，它研究语言在社会语境中的各种变化与发展。

一、语言变异

语言变异是社会语言学中最基本、最重要的概念之一；因为它表明了作为社会交流的语言是永远不会一成不变的，语言总是随着使用地点、时间、环境和人的变化而变化。社会语言的目的就是要在社会环境中寻找语言规律，描写语言变体。

在语言变异这个大概念中，我们要考虑到言语社区，即任何语言都有一定的地域分布范围，也就是说所有说话者都是某个特定的言语社区中的成员，同属一个言语社区中的成员通常使用相同的语言变体。言语变体，即社会语言中最重要的基本概念之一。事实上

在社会语境中使用的语言都属于某种言语变体，一种言语变体具有一些与其他言语变体不同的特征。这些特征可以体现在语言本身的变化上。例如：发音、句法、用词等。语言变体可以指一种不同的语言。例如：标准语、方言等；也可以指同一语言的地域性或民族性变体，例如：黑人英语等，还可以指同属一种语言的功能性言语变体，例如：正式语体、法律语体等。地域变异即方言。社会变异即由社会变化产生了社会方言。文体变异即语言使用者在说话或写作中的语用变化。个人言语变异即说话者个人语言习惯上的变异等方面的内容。

二、方言及方言的社会功能

方言是指一种民族语言在一个国家内部的不同地域使用，产生的地域变体，也可以将它看作是同一语言的地域变体，比如：汉语就有吴方言、粤方言等。

不同地区的方言为交流带来了极大的困难，这不仅仅是由于不同的发音方式，还由于对某些用词的不同解释。为了解决这一难题就是将语言标准化也叫语言规范化。

语言标准化就由政府或是政府指定机构，选出一种语言变体，并加以推广。标准语与非标准语无优劣之分。

三、双语与双言现象

双语现象是在同地区内通行两种不同的语言或方言现象。双语现象有以下三种情况：

1. 同一地区通用两种或两种以上的语言，例如：加拿大使用英语和法语，比利时使用法语和荷兰语。
2. 同一地区通用两种或两种以上的方言。例如：广州使用广州话、潮州话和普通话。
3. 同一地区通行一种或多种语言，如香港使用英语、汉语普通话、广州话、客家话。

“双言”指一个人能说两种语言或方言。双语与双言的区别在于前者指的是整个社会、地区、或集团内的语言使用状况，而后者

指社会个体的语言能力

四、少数民族方言

少数民族是指在同一社会中，由于不同民族背景而形成的语言变体。

使用最广泛，大家最熟悉的一种少数民族方言就是美国的黑人英语。它的使用者绝大多数都是美国非中产阶级的黑人。从语言学的角度来看，像黑人英语这种少数民族语言变化仅仅是美国英语的一种标准的方言而已。

像黑人英语这种少数民族方言的实质是社会、教育、经济歧视和种族歧视的结果。

五、社会方言

社会方言是指能置于社会等级差异的语言变体。不同的阶级、不同的性别、不同的职业等在语言的运用都会留下一些痕迹。由于社会群体的多样化，所以社会方言也就呈现了多样化的状态。

在社会方言这个大概念下我们要注意以下几种变体：

1. 教育变体，即受过相同教育的人往往使用相同的社会方言。
2. 年龄变体，即不同年龄段的群体语言变异。
3. 性别变体，即由于性别的差异而体现在说话者的语音、语调、用词、正式语与非正式语等方言的差异。
4. 性别歧视语，即在男性话语背景下，对女性带有歧视的语言。
5. 语域变体是一种交际情景方言。它与交际场合，交际各方，交际主题等因素密切相关以交际时说话者所用语体或文体的得体性为主要特征。
6. 称谓语是交际双方的社会、家庭及个人关系的体现。称谓语的范畴包括人名头衔、人称代词等。
7. 俚语。俚语虽然寓意生动、表达力强，但通常被认为是非标准用语，有负面涵义。
8. 禁忌语，即那些包含了某种被主流社会或导致团体视为犯

忌的内容或寓意等意义的词。

【名词解释（汉）】

1. 社会语言学 (Sociolinguistics): 社会语言学是语言学的一个分支, 它将语言置入社会语境之中进行研究。它所研究的对象是语言的社会本质和差异, 也就是各种语言差异和造成差异的各种社会因素。社会语言学是 20 世纪 50 年代才出现的新学科, 它是处于语言学和社会学之间的边缘学科。

2. 言语社区 (Speech community): 任何语言都有一定的地域分布范围。也就是说所有说话者都是某个特定的言语社区中的成员, 同属一个言语社区中的成员通常使用相同的语言变体。

3. 社会方言 (Socialelect): 社会方言是指能显示社会等级差异的语言变体。不同的阶级、不同的性别、不同的职业等在语言运用中都会留下一些痕迹。

4. 语域 (Register): 语域是指具有某种具体用途的变体。语域可以分得很细。例如, 根据题材有各个专业的行话; 根据传递中介可分为印刷材料、书信体等; 根据正式的程度可分为正式体、随便体、亲密体等。

5. 标准语 (Standard language): 标准语是指那种社会共通变体, 它有一整套的语法和词汇系统, 用于官方文件、报刊、杂志、广播等。在学校作为课程开设、并教授给外国语言学习者的语言变体, 它是被广为接受和运用的。

6. 通用语 (Lingua franca): 通用语是一种语言变体, 是在讲不同母语和方言的人们进行社会接触时, 有时使用的一种交际共通语。

7. 皮钦语 (或洋泾浜) (Pidgin): “皮钦语” (或洋泾浜) 是来自不同民族, 说不同语言的人, 由于某种原因聚集在一个地区长时间彼此交际, 从而形成的一种混合语。它的词汇取自两种或更多的语言, 而语法则采取这些语言中最简单的形式或进一步加以简化。

8. 双言现象 (Diglossia): 双言现象是指一个人能说两种语言或

方言，它是对社会个体语言能力而言。

9. 语码转换 (Code-switching): 语码转换是指人们在交际中根据实际需要轮流使用不同的语言、方言或其它变体。

10. 使用域 (Domain): 使用域是大多数双语社区常见的现象，即两种语言间有非常明显的功能区分。每个使用域都有自己的身份关系、地点和话题。一定的使用域和一定的语言相联系。诸如：家庭、交友、宗教、教育、就业五个使用域。

11. 禁忌语 (Linguistic taboo): 禁忌语是指那些包含了某种被主流社会或导致团体视为犯忌的内容或寓意等意义的词。

12. 委婉语 (Euphemism): 委婉语是一种表达婉转，避免伤人的语言。

13. 语言变体 (Speech Variety): 语言变体是社会语言中最重要的基本概念之一。事实上在社会语境中使用的语言都属于某种言语变体，一种言语变体具有一些与其他言语变体不同的特征。这些特征可以体现在语言本身的变化上。例如：发音、句法、用词等。语言变体可以指一种不同的语言。例如：标准语、方言等；也可以指同一语言的地域性或民族性变体，例如：黑人英语等。还可以指同属一种语言的功能性言语变体，例如：正式语体、法律语体等。

14. 双语 (Bilingualism): 双语现象是指一个人或社区群体可以同时使用两种标准语言的现象。可以用来表述整个社会、地域、集团内的语言使用状况。

15. 少数民族方言 (Ethnic dialect): 少数民族方言是指在同一社会内，由于不同的民族背景形成的语言变体，它是一种社会方言。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Sociolinguistics (社会语言学): Sociolinguistics is the subdiscipline of linguistics that studies language in social context.

2. Speech community (言语社区): The speech community refers to a group of people who form a community and share at least one speech variety as well as similar linguistic norms.

3. Sociolect (社会方言): Sociolect refers to a variety of language used by people belonging to a particular social class.

4. Register (语域): Register refers to a functional speech or language variety that involves degrees of formality depending on the speech situation concerned.

5. Standard language (标准语): Standard language refers to a variety of language of a community or nation, usually based on the speech and writing of educated native speakers of the language.

6. Lingua franca (通用语): Lingua franca is a variety of language that serves as a common speech for social contact among groups of people who speak different native languages or dialects.

7. Pidgin (皮钦语或洋泾浜): A "Pidgin" is a mixed or blended language used by people who speak different languages for restricted purposes such as trading. It has a limited vocabulary and reduced grammatical structures.

8. Diglossia (双言现象): Diglossia refers to a sociolinguistic situation in which two very different varieties of language co-exist in a speech community, each serving a particular social function and used for a particular situation.

9. Code-switching (语码转换): Code-switching refers to a bilingual speaker often uses two languages alternatively during a conversation with another bilingual speaker.

10. Domain (使用域): Domain refers to a phenomenon that most bilingual communities have one thing in common, that is, a fairly clear functional differentiation of the two languages in respect of speech situations, for example the Home Domain, Employment Domain etc.

11. Linguistic taboo (禁忌语): A linguistic taboo refers to a word or expression that is prohibited by the "polite" society from general use, such as obscene, profane and swear words etc.

12. Euphemism (委婉语): Euphemism is a word or expression that is thought to be mild, indirect, or less offensive and used as a polite substi-

tute for the supposedly harsh and unpleasant word or expression.

13. Speech variety (语言变体): Speech variety, also known as language variety, refers to any distinguishable form of speech used by a speaker or group of speakers. The distinctive characteristics of a speech variety may be lexical phonological, morphological, syntactic, or a combination of linguistic features.

14. Bilingualism (双语): Bilingualism refers to a linguistic situation in which two standard languages are used either by an individual or by a group of speakers.

15. Ethnic dialect (少数民族方言): Ethnic dialect refers to a phenomenon that within a society speech variation may come about because of different ethnic backgrounds.

补充练习

I. Indicate the following statements true or false:

1. Language as a means of social communication is never a homogeneous system with a homogeneous group of speakers. ()

2. The important characteristic of a speech community is that the members of the group must, in some reasonable way, interact linguistically with other members of the community. ()

3. From the sociolinguistic perspective, a speech variety is no more than a dialectal variety of a language. ()

4. The term dialect, as a technical term in linguistics, carries value judgement and not simply refers to a distinct form of language. ()

5. Although geographical barriers are the major source of regional variation of language, loyalty to one's native speech and physical and psychological resistance to change are among other reasons of such variation. ()

6. Dialectal variation in a person's speech, or writing, usually ranges on a continuum from casual or colloquial to formal or polite according to the

type of communicative situation. ()

7. A pidgin typically has enough inflectional morphemes, such as nouns with no endings to indicate plurality, and verbs with no endings to indicate tense or subject agreement. ()

8. Often the low variety is regarded as a literary standard called a classical language. ()

9. Social dialects, or sociolects, are varieties of language used by people belonging to particular social classes. ()

10. In sociolinguistics, taboo, or rather linguistic taboo, does not denote any prohibition on the use of particular lexical items to refer to objects or acts. ()

II . Fill in the blanks.

1. In sociolinguistic studies, speakers are treated as members of _____ .

2. _____ moves on a scale of the national language, dialects, and individual ways of communication.

3. Although variation may occur with respect to pronunciation, vocabulary, or syntax, particularly to pronunciation, the most distinguishable linguistic feature of a regional dialect is its _____ .

4. One way out of the communication dilemma is language standardization known as _____ .

5. While most speakers are limited to a single regional dialect, a socially - conscious speaker must employ a variety of styles of speech known as _____ .

6. _____ is, thus, a personal dialect of an individual speaker that combines aspects of all the elements regarding regional, social, and stylistic variation, in one form or another.

7. The standard language is a supposed, socially prestigious _____ of language.

8. _____ refers to a linguistic situation in which two standard lan-

guages are used either by an individual or by a group of speakers, such as the inhabitants of a particular region or a nation.

9. One such dialect, and probably the most widespread and most familiar ethnic variety of the English language is _____.

10. Registers are language varieties appropriate for use in particular _____, in contrast to language varieties that are associated with the social or regional grouping of their customary users.

11. One specific aspect of situational use of language is that of _____ term usage.

12. _____ is a casual use of language that consists of expressive but nonstandard vocabulary, typically of arbitrary, flashy and often ephemeral coinages and figures of speech characterized by spontaneity and sometimes by raciness.

13. A linguistic _____ refers to a word or expression that is prohibited by the "polite" society from general use.

14. A _____ is a mild, indirect or less offensive word or expression substituted when the speaker or writer fears more direct wording might be harsh, unpleasantly direct, or offensive.

15. Regardless of the differences in the approximation of perfect bilingualism, most bilingual communities have one thing in common, that is, a fairly clear functional differentiation of the two languages in respect of speech situations known as _____.

III. Make the choice that can be best fitted.

1. The word "language" is sometimes used to refer to the whole of a person's language called _____.

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|
| A. scientific language | B. idiolect |
| C. colloquial language | D. formal language |

2. A linguist regards the changes in language and language use as _____.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------------|
| A. unnatural | B. something to be feared |
|--------------|---------------------------|

- C. natural D. abnormal
3. One domain is the _____ , home as the actual place
as well as the topic of a conversation.
- A. Employment Domain B. Home Domain
C. Religion Domain D. Education Domain.
4. Which sociolinguistic concept does the following saying belong to?
“If we don’t begin studying for the final, a whole semester’s work
is going down the tubes.”
- A. Ethnic dialect B. taboo
C. slang D. Euphemism.
5. “Variation in language use is also associated with the sex of individ-
ual speakers” which of the following terms does this definition fit
for?
- A. Education varieties B. Age varieties
C. Gender varieties D. Register varieties.

IV . Answer the following questions as comprehensively as possible, giving examples if necessary.

1. what is the difference between bilingualism and diglossia?
2. what are the features of Black English?
3. Give your remarks on the following statement that excessive use of euphemism may have negative effects.

参考答案

I.

- 1.T 2.T 3.T 4.F 5.T
6.F 7.F 8.F 9.T 10.F

II.

1. social groups; 2. speech variation;

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------------|
| 3. accent; | 4. language planning; |
| 5. register; | 6. Idiolect; |
| 7. dialect; | 8. Bilingualism; |
| 9. Black English; | 10. speech situations; |
| 11. address; | 12. slang; |
| 13. taboo; | 14. euphemism; |
| 15. domains. | |

III .

1. B 2. C 3. B 4. C 5. C

IV .

1. Bilingualism refers to the linguistic phenomenon that in some speech communities two languages are spoken side by side, each playing a different role, and people switch from one language to the other as the situation changes.

Diglossia refers to the sociolinguistic situation, similar to bilingualism, which does not have two languages but two varieties of one language spoken throughout a community, each playing a definite role in social life.

2. a) One of the phonological features of Black English is the simplification of a constant cluster at the end of a word by dropping the word – final phoneme. As a result, for example, “desk” pronounced as /des/ and “told” pronounced as /tou/.

b) One of the syntactic features of Black English is the constant absence of the copula, such as “They mine”, “You crazy”, “The coffee cold”.

c) Another syntactic feature that characterizes Black English is the double negation construction with sentences like “I don’ t know nobody” and “He don’ t go nowhere.”.

3. I quite agree to this statement. An excessive use of euphemism may have negative effects. As a matter of fact, many euphemisms have become

cliches that are to be avoided in formal speech and writing. They also tend to be wordy and to give writing a timid quality. In addition, euphemism can be evasive or even deceitful. Because they are often improperly used to obscure the intended meaning. Many people find them offensive and prefer plain language.

Chapter 9 Psycholinguistics

(第九章 心理语言学)

要点提示

1. 主要内容：语言与脑的关系、语言的生理基础、语言侧化、语言中枢、失语症的研究、语言习得的关键期、语言与思维的关系。
2. 主要概念：心理语言学、大脑皮层、大脑的侧化、语言侧化、两耳分听、关键期、萨丕尔—沃尔夫假设、无声的语言。

本章概述

希望通过本章节的学习，能使学生能了解语言活动的生理机制，认识语言与思维的关系。例如：学生应搞清大脑的语言侧化现象以及大脑语言中枢的主要作用和分工，了解语言的感知、理解以及表达的基本过程，明白语言习得机制的活跃期与显化期，认识语言与思维关系的本质。

心理语言学可以看作是心理学与语言学相互交叉产生的学科，因此它主要研究言语的生成、言语的理解、语言掌握等方面的心理机制和大脑的神经生理活动。

在这一章首先要了解大脑侧化的问题。大脑分为基本对称的两个半球，即左半球和右半球，两半球之间由一个神经路径相连。一般说来，大脑左半球控制着人体右半身的活动，大脑右半球控制着人体左半身的活动。大脑左右半球各有分工，而其脑力活动功能的分工有一个发育成长的过程，这种逐步成熟的大脑分工过程叫作大

脑侧化，而大脑两半球功能的侧化所导致的相对分工，则体现了一种相互依赖、互为补充的关系。

现在科学家们已经证明，大脑左半球有着语言上的优势，即大部分人的大脑左半球具有语言信息处理功能。这一现象也叫作左半球语言侧化，两耳分听实验可以证明这一现象。

在确定了左半球为掌管语言后，心理学、神经学和语言学领域的科学家们一直在寻找与语言有关的思维的区域，研究表明语言处理中心不仅仅位于左半球的某一个区域，而是存在于几个语言中心，而且每个中心都有自己特殊的功能。例如：1861年法国外科医生布洛卡发现大脑左半球额下回后半部主管口语的生成，该区域也称作“布罗卡区”，它的损伤或病变会造成运动性失语症，即患者不能组成完整的话语。1874年德国生理学家韦尼克发现大脑左半球颞叶后部主管口语的接受和理解，该区域也称作“韦尼克区”，它的损伤或病变会造成感觉性失语症，患者听不懂别人的话，而患者所说的话虽然语音、语调流利，但内容却是一派胡言。

语言中枢的第一个重要的语言区域是角形脑回，它控制视觉信号与听觉信号的相互连接和互为转换的机能。

语言中枢是如何工作的呢？人们在听话时，通过听觉感知到的语言信号在韦尼克区内进行解译，然后被传递到布罗卡区准备表达，这时布罗卡区的控制发音器官的肌动区域发出表达指令，而人们在说话时，先从韦尼克区提取词汇，然后将它们传递到布罗卡区，再由布罗卡区决定言语的具体形式和发音，再向肌动区域发出予以表达的指令。

本章介绍的另一个重点是语言习得关键期。关键期假设理论认为，人在成长过程中有一段时期比其他任何一个时期都更容易习得语言。关键期始于婴儿期，并可以持续到青春期，这与人的大脑侧化过程是相吻合的。大脑侧化过程一旦完成，人的语言功能便已在大脑皮层上定位。关键期后开始的母语习得将难以获得完全成功，这是因为语言习得的临界期已过，人脑的语言机制开始退化。

语言与思维是本章最后讨论的一个问题，这其实是个古老的问题，人类的思维能力及人类用于表达思想进行交流的语言系统一直

是人类所特有的骄傲，但它们之间的关系却是令人迷惑的，例如：柏拉图认为思想和语言是一致的，语言是有声的思维，而思维则是一种无声语言。而亚里士多德则认为，人类有着不同的语言，而人类语言的不同是因为人类心理经验的不同，即语言与思维绝非一体，语言只不过是一种心理上的经验而已。

到了 20 世纪最能引起人们争议的有关语言与思维关系的是萨丕尔——沃尔夫假设。萨丕尔、沃尔夫认为，人们所感受到、所认识到的世界是建筑在自己民族语言的基础上的。这一假设包括“语言决定论”和“语言相对论”两部分。语言决定论是指语言决定思维，又称为强假设；语言相对论是指语言影响思维，又称弱假设。

人们从以下几个方面对萨丕尔——沃尔夫假设提出质疑：

1. 词的形式与意义之间的关系是任意性，词的形式与意义之间的关系是任意的。

2. 语法结构与语言的句法系统是独立的。

3. 语言的可译性，即根据萨丕尔——沃尔夫假设两种语言有着完全不同的概念系统，语言间的互译是完全不可能的，而实际上是可译的。

4. 第二语言的习得如果确实如萨丕尔、沃尔夫所言，完全有不同的概念系统，那么人们就不可能学会另外一种语言，然而这个世界上有着大量的讲双语的人。

而支持萨丕尔——沃尔夫假设的人则认为一个民族的思维模式是由这个民族特定的语言体系所造成的，然而从语言学的角度看，各种语言系统之间的差异只是语言表层结构上的差异，未反映语言结构的本质，不足以说明语言系统与思维系统之间的因果关系。

我们主张认识语言与思维的关系可以从认识语言的功能着手。用辩证的角度来看问题。首先语言对思维的功能上看：

a. 语言是形成思维的工具，思想通过语言而现实化。

b. 语言是表达思想的工具，人们使用语言组成话语表述自己的思想。

c. 语言是引起别人思想的工具，在交际过程中，会引起听者或读者产生与所接受内容相仿的思想。

d. 语言是使思维过程模式化的工具。交际时, 言语的扩大过程同思维过程相适应形成思维的特别模式, 又由于言语模式能够与被模式化的客体相对比, 所以通过修改言语模式, 可以使思想更符合实际。

e. 语言是使思维活动人化, 使人脱离动物界的条件之一。

再看看思维对语言的作用:

a. 思维是直接引起语义变化的动力之一。

b. 思维是言语扩展的主要原因。

c. 思维对言语的建立和扩展起控制作用。

可见, 思维对语言有积极的作用, 而且语言与思维是相互依存、相互促进, 思维往往是起动力作用的。

【名词解释 (汉)】

1. 心理语言学 (Psycholinguistics): 心理语言学是心理学与语言学相互交叉所产生的学科, 因此它主要研究言语的生成、言语的理解、语言的掌握等方面的心理机制和大脑的神经生理活动。

2. 大脑皮层 (Cerebral cortex): 大脑皮层是大脑的外表层, 也是大脑最重要的部分, 因为它是做决定的且使人类区别于其它动物的许多认识能力, 诸如复杂的推理能力、语言能力、音乐能力, 都存在于这一部位。

3. 大脑的侧化 (Brain lateralization): 大脑的侧化是指人的大脑分左右两个半球, 中间有神经纤维 (脑桥) 连通。左半球掌管右半身的动作, 右半球掌管左半身的动作。左半球掌管语言和抽象思维; 而右半球掌握感性直观思维。

4. 语言侧化 (Linguistic lateralization): 语言侧化是指就绝大多数人类而言, 大脑的左半球是掌管语言的。

5. 两耳分听 (Dichotic listening): 两耳分听是指右耳听到的信号会进入左半球, 而左耳听到的信号会进入右半球。

6. 关键期 (The critical period): 关键期假设是指在一生中大约是从 2 岁到青春期之间是大脑掌握和学习语言最容易、最快捷的时期。母语的习得刚好与大脑的侧化期相吻合。

7. 萨丕尔——沃尔夫假设 (The Sapir - Whorf hypothesis): 萨丕尔和沃尔夫认为, 人们所感受到、所认识到的世界是建筑在自己民族语言的基础上。萨丕尔——沃尔夫假设包括“语言决定论”和“语言相对论”两部分。“语言决定论”是指语言决定思维, 又称强假设; “语言相对论”是指语言影响思维, 又称弱假设。

8. 无声的语言 (Subvocal speech): 无声的语言是指当语言和思想一致时或是几乎平行时, 我们说思维是一种无声的语言。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Psycholinguistics (心理语言学): Psycholinguistics is the study of language in relation to the mind, with focus on the processes of language production, comprehension and acquisition.

2. Cerebral cortex (大脑皮层): Cerebral cortex is the outside surface of the brain which receives messages from all the sensory organs and where human cognitive abilities reside.

3. Brain lateralization (大脑的侧化): Brain lateralization refers to the localization of cognitive and perceptual functions in particular hemisphere of the brain.

4. Linguistic Lateralization (语言侧化): Linguistic lateralization is the hemispheric specialization or dominance for language.

5. Dichotic listening (两耳分听): Dichotic listening refers to a research technique which has been used to study how the brain controls hearing and language, with which subjects wear earphones and simultaneously receive different sounds in the right and left ear, and are then asked to repeat what they hear and we find that a signal coming in the right ear will go to the left hemisphere and a signal coming in the left ear will go to the right hemisphere.

6. The critical period (关键期): The critical period is an early period of one's life extending to the age of puberty, during which the human brain is most ready to acquire language naturally and effortlessly, a period that coincides with the period of brain lateralization for language functions.

7. the Sapir - Whorf hypothesis (萨丕尔-沃尔夫假设): The Sapir - Whorf hypothesis is a theory put forward by the American anthropological linguists Sapir and Whorf. This hypothesis states that the way people view the world is determined wholly or partly by the structure of their native language.

8. Subvocal speech (无声的语言): Subvocal speech is a term used to thought when thought and language are identical or closely parallel to each other.

补充练习

I .Indicate the following statements true or false:

1. Evidently, our linguistic ability does not depend primarily on the structure of our vocal cords. ()

2. Human linguistic ability largely depends on the structure and dynamics of the human brain. ()

3. Psychological research suggests that only left hemisphere performs important mental functions. ()

4. Research findings have shown that language processing centers are situated in a single area of the left hemisphere. ()

5. Broca's area is in the frontal lobe in the left cerebral. ()

6. When we listen, the word is heard and comprehended via Broca's area, and then the signal is transferred to Wernicke's area where preparations are made to produce it. ()

7. In cases where the object is associated with an visual image, a message is sent to the angular gyrus, where it is converted into a visual stimulus, arousing the appropriate pattern in the visual area. ()

8. Children who suffer aphasia after puberty have a much more rapid and complete recovery than do other children. ()

9. The syntactic system of a language and the perceptual system of the speakers of that language do not have the kind of interdependent relationship

that Sapir - Whorf hypothesis claimed to have. ()

10. When a bilingual speaker switches between the two languages concerned, he or she is not converting one mode of thinking into the other, but rather making transitions between the two linguistic coding systems.

()

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The brain is divided into two roughly symmetrical halves, called _____, one on the right and one on the left.
2. In general, _____ controls voluntary movement of the body, whereas _____ controls voluntary movements of, and responds to signals from, the right side of the body.
3. It is now known that specialized linguistic and perceptual skills are each _____ in a particular hemisphere of the brain.
4. Neurolinguists have concluded that, in addition to the motor area which is responsible for physical articulation of utterances, three areas of the left hemisphere are vital to language, namely, _____ and _____.
5. It is generally thought that the development of lateralization in the brain may be connected to the language learning abilities of children in that the critical age for the acquisition of the first language coincide with the period of _____.
6. Further support comes from the fact that it becomes progressively more difficult to acquire language after the age at which lateralization is _____.
7. Because languages differ in many ways, _____ also believed that speakers of different languages perceive and experience the world differently.
8. Actually the relationship between the name and the meaning of a word is quite _____.

9. This neurological flexibility is referred to in the literature as _____.
10. _____ is one of the few well-studied cases of a child in whom first language acquisition began after the so-called period.

III. Mark the choice that can be best fitted.

- Language disorder resulting from a damage to _____ in the brain reveals word-finding difficulties and problems with syntax.
A. Broca's area B. Wernicke's area
C. The angular gyrus D. Genie's case
- The speaker like "I eggs and eat and drink coffee breakfast," suffers _____.
A. Wernicke's aphasics B. The damage on the angular gyrus
C. Broca's aphasic D. The linguistic deprivation
- What kind of patients cannot convert a visual stimulus into an auditory form and vice versa. _____.
A. The linguistic deprivation
B. Wernicke's aphasics
C. Broca's aphasic
D. The damage on the angular gyrus
- _____ produce fast and fluent speech with good intonation and pronunciation but the content of their speech ranges from mildly inappropriate to complete nonsense, often as unintelligible.
A. Broca's aphasic B. The linguistic deprivation
C. Wernicke's aphasic D. The damage on the angular gyrus
- The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis is about _____.
A. language and thought B. language and translation
C. Grammatical structure D. Second language acquisition

IV. Answer the following questions as comprehensively as possible, giving examples if necessary.

1. State the arguments against the Sapir - Whorf hypothesis briefly.
2. In what crucial regions are speech and language thought to be localized?
3. Describe the processes of language perception, comprehension and production.

参考答案

I.

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. T | 2. T | 3. F | 4. F | 5. T |
| 6. F | 7. T | 8. F | 9. T | 10. T |

II.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| 1. hemispheres; | 2. the right hemisphere, the left hemisphere; |
| 3. localized; | 4. Broca's area, Wernicke's area; |
| 5. brain lateralization; | 6. complete; |
| 7. Whorf; | 8. arbitrary; |
| 9. cerebral plasticity; | 10. Genie. |

III.

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1. A | 2. C | 3. D | 4. C | 5. A |
|------|------|------|------|------|

IV.

1. The strong version of Sapir - Whorf hypothesis concerns too much with surface structures of individual languages. In fact, all languages are fundamental of the same universal human character, including the lexico - semantic and syntactic components of language and all normal human beings are gifted with the same linguistic faculty and general cognitive capacity. We can see the plight in the following aspects:

①Grammatical structure——Whorf did not only depend too heavily on the literal use of words but also on grammatical structure, out the syntactic system of a language and the perceptual system of the speakers of that language do not have the kind of interdependent relationship that the Sapir - Whorf hypothesis claimed to have.

②Translation——Another major argument against the Sapir——Whorf hypothesis comes from the fact that successful translation between languages can be made.

③Second language acquisition——There are numerous cases of successful bilingual speakers across the globe. They are proficient in two languages that are not genetically related, but they do not have “double minds” equipped with two different systems of thought.

2. In what have come to be known as Broca's area, Wernicke's area and angular gyrus, all located in the hemisphere of the brain.

3. From the perspective of psycholinguistic analysis, language use in terms of perception, comprehension and production follows a certain pattern which involves the coordination of various language centers. For example, when we speak, words are drawn from Wernicke's area and transferred to Broca's area, which determines the details of their form and pronunciation. The appropriate instructions are then sent to the motor area which controls the vocal tract to physically articulate the words. When we hear something and try cortex is transmitted to Wernicke's area, where a message is sent to the angular gyrus, where it is converted into a visual pattern.

Chapter 10 Language Acquisition

(第十章 语言习得)

要点提示

1. 主要内容：人类语言能力的获得及其发展过程，第一语言习得的原则，第一语言习得的阶段，语法知识的形成，第二语言习得所涉及的一些主要问题。

2. 主要概念：语言习得、输入、行为主义学习理论、独词句、电报式言语、转移、干扰、对比分析、错误分析、语际语、语言僵化、工具性学习动机、介入性学习动机、文化移入、保姆语、扩展过渡。

本章概述

语言习得的能力是人类生物特征之一，是人类大脑特有的机制。

一、第一语言习得

我们首先要明白的一个问题是习得语言的能力是人类的生物特征之一，是人类大脑特有的机制，是一切正常人所具备的天赋条件。而且儿童语言习得的能力也无高低之分，因此任何一个心智健康、生理健康的儿童，只要具备接触语言和使用语言的条件都可以轻松自然、快捷地习得人类的任何一种语言。

特别需要注意的是语言习得机制有一个由盛转衰的周期。

其原因有二：一是因为人类具备掌握语言和使用语言的神经系

统。其二是因为虽然语言不相同，但从语言普遍的抽象性来看各种语言在复杂性和细节上却是相同的。

特别需要注意的是人类的语言习得机制有一个由盛转衰的周期：儿童时期最为鼎盛，青春期到来后开始衰退。

从原则上讲本节的另外一个问题是语言的习得实际上就是语法规则的习得。这是因为从原则上讲，人脑不可能储存一种语言所有的词汇和表达方式，事实上儿童是根据语法规则来造句，来表达的，也就是说儿童一旦习得了语法规则，便可以听懂从未听到过的句子，表达出从未听人说过的话。

既然语言习得机制是人类天赋的生物特征，那么是不是只要生理和心智均属健康的儿童，在任何条件下都能习得语言？我们的答案是否定的。对一个生理和心智均属正常的儿童来说习得语言还需要具备另外两个条件，即接触语言和使用语言的环境。

因为孩子只有在他的生活环境中感受到大量的输入语料，才能从中认识到那些具备普遍意义的语法规则。随着年龄的增长，儿童的单纯性语言接触转为同家庭或社会环境中的成员的语言交流活动，这就为习得本族（也就是母语）奠定了基础，而那些从小被剥夺了语言环境的“狼孩”、“猪孩”等就失去了应有的语言能力。

在语言习得的过程中虽然大量的语料输入极为重要，但这重要的环节应是自然的而非刻意的向儿童传授语言知识。事实上系统的语言教育对加速儿童听说能力的发展几乎没什么作用，儿童习得语言所需要的是自然的语言环境，而非一种正式的教育环境。

在儿童语言习得的过程中，不要按成人的标准去刻意地纠正儿童语言的错误，因为这些错误大都属于语言发展错误，是习得语法规则不可避免的认识性的错误，这些错误会随着儿童的语言能力和认识能力的发展而减少。因此对他们的错误进行强化性的纠正，其效果是甚微的。

在儿童的语言习得过程中模仿具有一定的作用，但绝非有什么决定性作用，事实上模仿的作用往往被夸大了。这是因为儿童语言习得的过程不是一个消极的模仿过程，而是一个主动发现规则，主要构造语法规则的过程。

二、第一语言习得的发展阶段

儿童语言习得大致要经过前语言、独词句、双词句、多词句这四个阶段。前语言阶段是从出生到大约 10 个月左右，这期间他们会由于本能的反映，例如，饥饿不舒服或想要抱所发生的声音，如 |R|、|U|；到 3 或 4 个月左右，会出现双音节，例如，|dn|、|m|、|na|、|ba|；到 6 个月以上就能发出好几个不同的元音和辅音，这一阶段的声音都是无意义的。

独词阶段 (The one word Stage)

大约在一岁到二岁，在这一阶段他们懂得了声音与意思是相关的，他们开始用同样的一串声音重复指同样的事情。从成人的语法角度来看，这阶段所出现的单词主要是简单的名词和动词。独词阶段经常会有扩展速度的传统出现。扩展过程即在独词阶段，儿童无法一下子就习得词汇全部意义，经过一段时间后他可能发现该词的其它意义，这时他可能扩展第一条意义，但却不能产生出正确的运用。例如，爸爸含有人的意思，他就有可能把所有的男人都称为爸爸，这就是扩展过程。

双词阶段 (The two word stage)

该阶段大致出现在 2 岁半左右。这时孩子们会出现大量的不同的两个词的组合，例如，“Baby hair”，“Daddy hat”，“Mummy sock”，“Me going”等，象独词句表达一样，双词的表达也没有句法和形态的特征，这一阶段的意义在于他们是通过双解的表达来与成人交往，也就是说，孩子们不仅仅是发出声音而且是得到反馈。

多词句阶段 (The multiword stage)

这大约是在 2 到 3 岁左右之间，当孩子们在经过了一段双词句的发展后，他们就很自然的出现了更长、有着更多复杂语法结构的话语。例如：“Cathy build house”，“Daddy like this book”，“This shoes all wet”，“What her name”，“No sit here”等，这阶段的显著特征是缺少屈折语素和一些非实义词的词类。我们把这种现象称之为电报式语言，即指儿童语言习得过程中的多词句阶段。因为儿童在多词句阶段所说的话听来如同成人的电报，句子基本由一些实义词组

成，缺少诸如介词、助动词、冠词等语法功能词类，也缺少起语法作用的词素，像成人的电报形式。多词句遵循了基本的句法规则，词序带有明显的层次结构。

三、语法体系的发展

词法体系的发展包括了语言、句法、词形、词汇与语义的发展。

语言的发展始于婴儿的咿呀学语，然后受语言环境的影响，儿童语音的发展逐步朝着本族语音系统定位。

儿童的句法概念始于双词语阶段，这时他的言语体现了一些基本的句法类型和语法关系。基本语言类型，如，名词词组、动词词组；语法关系诸如主谓关系等。随着儿童语言的逐步发展，进入多词句阶段以后，渐渐地开始使用可以表示时态变化、数的变化，性的变化等概念的屈折词系和派生词。儿童的句法发展经历了由简单到复杂的过程，其中否定句和特殊疑问句的发展可以说是儿童句法阶段性的发展的标志。

儿童早期语言中词的形态极为简单，以英语为例，他们所使用的词都是没有词缀只有词干的基本词。儿童语言只有发展到了多词句以后，才逐步出现了 - ing 词缀，然后是复数的 - s 词缀和过去时的 - ed 词缀。

儿童在出生后的两年里，词汇量极为有限，一般在 50 到 100 个单词之间，两岁以后词汇量开始迅速上升，5 周岁时，儿童词汇量的增长率可达 20 个词/日。随着词汇量的突飞猛进，儿童的词句开始变长，词义的泛指范围逐步缩小，外延意义逐步接近或趋向于成人语言所含的语义。

因此学龄前儿童在上小学之前都可以成功的习得第一语言，即可以用本族语的语法知识和词汇进行以听说为主的语言交际活动的的能力。

四、第二语言的习得

在这一节里，我们需要搞清这样几个问题。

1. 习得与学习 2. 转移与干扰 3. 错误分析 4. 语际语与语言僵化

现象 5. 语言输入的作用 6. 正规数学的作用 7. 学习者的个人因素。

语言习得，基本是指儿童对母语的获得与掌握。而第二语言的习得是指人们发展第二语言或外语能力的过程。因此第二语言的习得不同于第一语言的习得，大部分第二语言习得者，虽然非常努力，也花费了很多的时间，却仍无法使自己的第二语言水平接近母语的水平。对此有的学者认为，第一语言的习得是儿童在自然的语言环境中下意识的学习语言，而下意识的习得语言和有意识的学习语言是两种不同的过程。前者有利于语言能力的发展，而后者则有利于语言知识的发展。

转移是指在学习第二语言过程中，学习者会自觉或不自觉的把本族语言模式或规则转移到目的语中去，从而对第二语言的习得产生一定的影响（或积极或消极）。干扰即指在转移过程中，学习者既有转移相同的语言形式，也有转移不同的语言形式。前者叫语言的正向转移，而后者叫语言的负向转移，而负向转移就是干扰，因为它对第二语言习得起干扰作用，是造成错误的主要原因。

错误分析（error analysis）是用来分析、研究第二语言学习者所犯的错误的，从而发现许多错误不是由于母语的干扰，而是反映了普遍的语言发展错误即语内语错误。

语言僵化是指在第二语言学习过程中，语际语停止向目的语方向发展。最明显的语言僵化是发音僵化，这正是造成第二语言习得者说话带母语口音的一个重要原因。

语际语是指第二语言学习者在第二语言发展过渡阶段里所说的语言，这介于母语和目的语之间，随着学习的发展，学习者的语际语就逐步接近或转变为目的语。

语言的输入是第二语言习得的一个必不可少的条件，而合适的语言输入则是第二语言习得的成功与否的先决条件之一。对于语言输入，学者们大致持两种意见，一种认为第二语言学习者唯有接受那些可以理解的语言输入，才能使语言学习转变为语言习得；另一种看法认为语言输入不等于语言纳入，决定第二语言习得成功与否的因素还应包括语言交流和语言“纳入”即语言输入必须同化与语际语系统，而这种输入对于第二语言习得者是最重要的。

【名词解释（汉）】

1. 语言习得 (Language acquisition): 语言习得是指儿童对母语的获得与掌握的过程。

2. 输入 (input): 输入是指语言习得者听到, 接收到的语言并加以学习的语言。

3. 行为主义学习理论 (behaviorist learning theory): 行为主义学习理论源自心理学的理论——行为主义。该理论认为儿童的语言行为是与他们所受刺激和随之的反应成相互条件的。

4. 独词句 (也叫 one word holophras): 独词句是指大约在两岁左右, 儿童的语言习得进入了明显的第一阶段即独词阶段, 他们使用一个词来表达复杂的概念, 使之相当于成人讲的句子。

5. 电报式言语 (telegraphic speech): 电报式言语是指儿童语言习得过程中的多词句阶段, 因为儿童在多词句阶段所说的话听来如同成人的电报, 句子基本由一些实义词组成, 缺少诸如介词、助动词、冠词等语法功能词类, 也缺少起语法作用的词素, 像成人的电报形式, 因此称为电报式言语。

6. 转移 (Language transfer): 转移是指在学习第二语言过程中, 学习者会自觉或不自觉的把本族语言模式或规则转移到目的语中去, 从而对第二语言的习得产生一定的影响 (或积极或消极)。

7. 干扰 (interference): 干扰即指在转移过程中学习者既有转移相同的语言形式, 也有转移不同的语言形式。前者叫语言的正向转移, 而后者叫语言的负向转移。而负向转移就是干扰, 因为它对第二语言习得起干扰作用, 是造成错误的主要原因。

8. 对比分析 (Contrastive analysis): 对比分析是指通过对比找出两种语言间的不同。这样就不但可以预测学习中由于母语的干扰所产生的困难, 而且有针对性的准备学习材料以减少干扰。

9. 错误分析 (error analysis): 错误分析是用来分析、研究第二语言学习者所犯的 error。从而发现许多错误, 不是由于母语的干扰, 而是反映了普遍的语言发展错误, 即语内语错误。

10. 语际语 (inter Language): 语际语是指第二语言学习者在第

二语言发展过渡阶段里所说的语言，它介于母语和目的语之间。随着学习的发展，学习者的语际语就逐步接近或转变为目的语。

11. 语言僵化 (Fossilization): 语言僵化是指在第二语言学习过程中，语际语停止向目的语方向发展。最明显的语言僵化是发音僵化，这正是造成第二语言习得者说话带母语口音的一个重要原因。

12. 工具性学习动机 (Instrumental motivation): 工具性学习动机是指第二语言学习者把第二语言看成一种工具，有了它即可达到某种目的。例如，找到份理想的工作，通过其考试，直接获得第二语言的信息等。

13. 介入性学习动机 (Integrative motivation): 介入性学习动机是指第二语言学习者为了介入第二语言环境而学习。

14. 文化移入 (文化适应 acculturation): 文化移入是指适应第二语言社会的文化与价值体系的过程。

15. 保姆语 (Caretaker speech): 在孩子习得母语时，保姆语是指父母或者保姆对婴幼儿活动时，所用的经过改变减化了的语言。

16. 扩展过渡 (Over - extention): 扩展过渡是指在独词阶段，儿童无法一下子就习得词汇全部意义，经过一段时间后他可能发现该词还有其它的意思，这时他可能扩展第一条词意，但却不能产生出正确的运用。例如，爸爸含有人的意思，他就有可能把所有的男人称为爸爸，这就是扩展过渡。

【名词解释 (英)】

1. Language acquisition (语言习得): Language acquisition refers to the development of the Child's acquisition of his mother tongue or first language. i.e, how he comes to understand and to speak the language of his community.

2. Input (输入): Input refers to the language which a learner hears or receives and from which he or she can learn.

3. Behaviorist Learning theory (行为主义学习理论): Behaviorist Learning theory, a theory of Psychology suggests that the learner's Verbal behavior is conditioned or reinforced through association between Stimulus

and response when applied to first Language acquisition.

4. One word holophras (独词句): Holophrase refers to a single word that appears in children's early speech and functions as a Complex idea or Sentence.

5. Telegraphic Speech (电报式言语): The telegraphic speech refers to the early speech of children. It is so called because it lacks the same sorts of words which adults typically leave out of telegrams. Such as non-substantive words and inflectional morphemes.

6. Language transfer (转移): Language transfer refers to the learners will subconsciously use their knowledge in learning a second language. Transfer Can be either positive or negative.

7. Interference (干扰): Interference refers to the use of one's first Language rule which leads to an error or in appropriate form in the target Language. It is also called Negative transfer.

8. Contrastive Analysis (对比分析): Contrastive analysis refers to a Comparative procedure used to establish linguistic differentials between two languages so as to predict learning difficulties caused by interference from the learner's first language and prepare the type of teaching materials that will reduce the effects of interference.

9. Error analysis (错误分析): Error analysis approach shows that there are striking similarities in the way in which different L2 Learners acquire a new language and a large proportion of developmental type of errors in learner's L2 utterances provide support for the claim that these similarities point to a natural route of L2 development which resembles that reported for L1 development.

10. Interlanguage (语际语): Interlanguage refers to the approximate Language system a second Language Learner Constructs which represents his or her transitional Competence in the target language.

11. Fossilization (语言僵化): Fossilization refers to the cause of the learner's interlanguage. That is in Second Language Learning the incorrect Linguistic features such as the accent or a grammatical pattern because a

permanent part of the way a person speaks or writes in the target Language.

12. Instrumental Motivation (工具性学习动机): Instrumental motivation refers to the learner's desire to learn a second Language because it is a useful functional instrument, such as getting a job, passing an examination or reading for informations. As getting a job, passing an examination or reading for information.

13. Integrative motivation (介入性学习动机): Integrative motivation refers to the aim of a second language learner to integrate himself or herself of which the second language community.

14. Acculturation (文化移入): Acculturation refers to the process of adapting to the culture and value system of the second Language Community.

15. Caretaker speech (保姆语): Caretaker speech is a simple, modified speech used by parents, baby - sitter when they talk to young children who are acquiring their mother tongue.

16. Over - extension (扩展过渡): Over - extension refers to the fact that Children over - extend early words, such as "Daddy" "mummy" etc. As a result they are likely to call all men daddy and all women mummy.

补充练习

I . Indicate the following statements True or False:

1. In general Language, acquisition refers to children's development of their first Language, that is, the native Language of the Community in which a child has been brought up. ()

2. It is widely recognized that human beings develop their native Language naturally and successfully, and they also acquire a subsequent Language the Way they acquire their mother tongue. ()

3. There are reasons for believing that the development of linguistical skills involves the acquisition of grammatic rules rather than the mere memorization of words and sentences. ()

4. A Certain amount of conscious instruction from the part of parents

and peers may have no effect on the language of a child. ()

5. The Selective imitation suggests that children do not blindly mimic adult speech in a parrot of fashion, but rather exploit it in very restricted ways to improve their linguistic skills. ()

6. Children first acquire the sounds found in all language of the world. No matter what language they are exposed to and in later stages acquire the more difficult sounds. ()

7. Language acquisition is in contrasted with language learning on the assumption that those are different processes. ()

8. SLA is primarily the study of how learners acquire or learn an additional language after they have acquired their first language. ()

9. The learner's transitional competence moving along a Learning continuum stretching from one's L_1 Competence. ()

10. Although it is found that formal instruction hardly affects the natural route of SLA, it does provide opportunities to receive comprehensible input, and in so doing enables the classroom learner to perform a wider range of linguistic tasks than the naturalistic learner and thereby accelerates the rate of acquisition. ()

II . Fill in the blanks.

1. The development of a first or native language (L_1) is called——— (FLA) and the development of a _____ (L_2) second language acquisition (SLA).

2. In view of the fact that Children's L_1 acquisition lies more at the core of linguistic and psychological exploration of human Language _____

3. What is meant by this _____, or _____, view of language acquisition is that humans are equipped with the neural prerequisites for language and language use just as birds are biologically rewired to learn the songs of their species.

4. In this regard it is important to realize that different languages have a similar level of complexity and detail and to reflect general abstract proper-

ties of the common linguistic system called the _____

5. Proponents of this Behaviorist learning theory suggested a child's verbal behavior was conditioned through association between a _____ and the following response.

6. _____ utterances sometimes show an overextension or underextension of reference.

7. Naturally, learners will subconsciously use their L₁ knowledge in learning a second language and this is known as language _____.

8. The _____ of the learners interlanguage is believed to be a major source of incorrect forms resistance to further instruction.

9. The _____ approach shows that there are striking similarities in the ways in which different L₂ learners acquire a new language.

10. Because of their resemblance to the style of language found in telegrams, utterances at this acquisition stage are often referred to as _____.

III. Mark the choice that Can be best fitted.

1. Southern learners of English in China tend to pronounce "night" as "light". This shows _____.

A. They can not pronounce the sound [n]

B. They do not like to pronounce nasal sounds

C. Interlanguage interference because there is not the sound [n] in southern dialect.

D. Their teachers do not have a good teaching method

2. As a type of linguistic system in its own right _____ is a product of L₂ training, mother tongue interference. Overgeneralization of the target language rules, and learning and Communicative strategies of the learner.

A. fossilization

B. interlanguage

C. input

D. intake

3. At the age of four children _____

- A. Can master the essentials of their mother tongue
 - B. Can only babble several sounds
 - C. Can name the things around them only
 - D. Can write out all the grammatical rules of their mother tongue
4. Which stages does the child belong to according to the stages of first language acquisition when we heard his saying like “Baby Chair” “mummy sock” or “me going” etc?
- A. babbling stage
 - B. one – word stage
 - C. two – word stage
 - D. multiword stage
5. Which stages does the child belong to according to the development of the grammatical system when we heard his saying like “No heavy”, “No eat” “He no bite you” etc?
- A. the development of phonology
 - B. the development of syntax
 - C. the development of morphology
 - D. the development of Vocabulary and semantics?

IV. Answer the following questions as Comprehensively as possible, giving examples if necessary.

1. There are various kinds of theories of child language acquisition. Please give your comment on two contrasting views.
2. Discuss the biological basis of child language acquisition.
3. State one major factor which contributes to the difficulties most second language learners encounter.

参考答案

I .

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. T | 2. F | 3. T | 4. F | 5. T |
| 6. T | 7. F | 8. T | 9. T | 10. T |

II .

1. first language acquisition, second or foreign language;
2. capacities;
3. biological, nativist;
4. Universal Grammar;
5. stimulus;
6. One – word;
7. transfer;
8. fossilization;
9. Error Analysis;
10. telegraphic speech.

III .

1. C 2. B 3. A 4. C 5. B

IV .

1. Here I'll give the example of the sharp contrast between the behaviorist view and the nativist view.

The Behaviorist View:

Language acquisition is a process of habit formation. Language is learned through stimulus and response. Reinforcement of selected responses is the key to understanding Language development. Children learn to produce correct sentences because they are positively reinforced when they say something right and negatively reinforced when they say something wrong.

The Nativist View:

Language acquisition is the species – specific property of human beings. Children are born with an innate ability to acquire language. They are predisposed to develop their native language along a universal predetermined route through similar stages. They go about acquiring the grammar of their native language using principle unique to language acquisition.

2. Language acquisition is a human species – specific capacity. All children are biologically equipped with this capacity at birth. That is, children are born with the neural prerequisites for language development and language use. Because language acquisition is biologically based, all normal children, except those with mental or physical impairments are capable

of acquiring at least one language during the early period of life, a period corresponding to the period of neural maturation of the brain. Because language acquisition is a natural tradition, intelligence, and opportunities to receive formal instruction and correction, follow the same natural route of language development and acquire their native language with equal success.

3. It has been suggested by some SLA scholars that learning difficulties confronting adult L₂ learners arise from the fact that for most people. A second language is learned in a formal setting, rather than acquired in a natural environment.

Language acquisition is contrasted with language learning on the ground that acquisition is subconscious, focusing on meaning, while learning is conscious, focusing on forms does not ensure acquisition of the rules, that is, does not ensure an immediate guidance for actual performance.

Model Test 1

(模拟试题一)

I . Define the following terms, giving examples for illustration if it is necessary.

1. Semantics;
2. the naming theory;
3. the conceptualist view;
4. contextualism;
5. pragmatics;
6. context;
7. utterance meaning;
8. locutionary act;
9. speech community;
10. Sociolect;

II . Indicate the following statements true or false.

1. Language is a system of arbitrary written symbols used for human communication. ()
2. For linguists, the study of sound is of greater importance than that of speech. ()
3. Inflectional affixes are added to an existing form to create a new word. ()
4. The way to divide the sentence "John suggested/that Mary take/the linguistics course." shows that the word order of a sentence is linear. ()
5. What separate the period of the Old English and Middle English is European Military invasion. ()

6. In general, language acquisition refers to children development of their first language, that is the native language of the community in which a child has been brought up. ()
7. A certain amount of conscious instruction on the part of parents and peers may have no effect on the language of child. ()
8. Human linguistic ability largely depends on the structure and dynamics of the human brain. ()
9. Broca's area is in the frontal lobe in the left cerebral. ()
10. The term dialect, as a technical term in linguistics, carries value judgement and not simply refers to a distinct form of language. ()

III . Fill in the blanks.

1. The word "zoo" was formed in the way of ____ .
2. According to the tree diagram of a sentence, a sentence is made up of _____ and _____ .
3. Morphemes such as "bed", "tree", "dance" are called _____ .
4. Linguistics is the scientific study of _____ .
5. The transcription of speech sound with _____ is called narrow Transcription.
6. _____ can be simply defined as the study of meaning.
7. _____ is based on the presumption that one can derive meaning from or reduce meaning to observable contexts.
8. Utterance is based on _____ ; it is the realization of the abstract meaning of a sentence in a real situation of communication, or simply in a context.
9. _____ were statements that either state or describe, and were thus verifiable.
10. In sociolinguistic studies, speakers are treated as members of _____ .

IV. Mark the choice that can be best fitted.

- The sentence "Yesterday I saw him." shows that language has the feature of _____.
A. arbitrariness
B. productivity
C. displacement
D. cultural transmission
- Of all the speech organs _____ is the most flexible.
A. the tongue
B. alveolar
C. velum
D. hard palate
- Jacob Grimm's great major contribution to historical linguistics is his discovery of _____.
A. the Great Vowel Shift
B. the Indo-European language family
C. the sound shift
D. the Universal Grammar
- Through the _____ of La - La sound, Engla - land came to be pronounced England.
A. assimilation
B. elaboration
C. internal borrowing
D. simplification
- The difference between [t] and [θ] does concern with _____.
A. phonology
B. phonetics
C. anthropological linguistics
D. neurological linguistics
- The word "language" is sometimes used to refer to the whole of a person's language called _____.
A. scientific language
B. idiolect
C. colloquial language
D. formal language
- Which of the following words is entirely arbitrary?
A. tree
B. crash
C. typewriter
D. bang
- The function of the sentence "A nice day, isn't it?" is _____.
A. directive
B. informative

- C. performative D. phatic
9. The function of the sentence "Water boils at 100 degrees Centigrade" is _____.
A. interrogative B. directive
C. informative D. performative
10. What is the meaning relationship between the two words "flower/rose"?
A. Homonymy B. Antonymy
C. Polysemy D. Hyponymy

V. Answer the following questions as comprehensively as possible, giving examples if necessary.

1. Use the appropriate phrase structure rules to draw a labelled constituent structure tree diagram for each of the following sentences.
 - (1) John went to the supermarket
 - (2) The man who came to see me last night is my brother
 - (3) The candle on the desk blows in the wind
2. Read the following words and try to tell how they are formed.
plane; VOA; Sitcom; Jazzothèque; window - shop; laundry - list; taxwise; childlike.
3. Why must we distinguish using language to do something and using language in doing something?
4. In what cortical regions are speech and language thought to be localized?

参考答案

L.

1. Semantics can be simply defined as the study of meaning.
2. The naming theory, one of the oldest notions concerning meaning, and also a very primitive one was proposed by the ancient Greek scholar Pla-

to. According to this theory, the linguistic forms or symbols, in other words, the words used in a language are taken to be labels of the objects they stand for. So words are just names or labels for things.

3. The conceptualist view holds that there is no direct link between a linguistic form and what it refers to; rather, in the interpretation of meaning they are linked through the mediation of concepts in the mind.

4. Contextualism is based on the presumption that one can derive meaning from or reduce meaning to observable contexts. Two kinds of context are recognized, the situational context and the linguistic context.

5. Pragmatics is a comparatively new branch of study in the area of linguistics; its development and establishment in the 1960s and 1970s resulted mainly from the expansion of the study of linguistics, especially that of semantics. A general definition of pragmatics is the study of how speakers of a language use sentences to effect successful communication. The scope of pragmatic study includes "speech act theory", "context", "principle of conversation" etc.

6. The notion of context is essential to the pragmatic study of language. It is generally considered as constituted by the speaker and the hearer. The shared knowledge is of two types: the knowledge of language they use, and the knowledge about the world, including the general knowledge about the world and the specific knowledge about the situation in which linguistic communication is taking place.

7. Utterance refers to a sentence as what people actually utter in the course of communication. It becomes an utterance and it should be considered in the situation in which it is actually uttered (or used).

8. A Locutionary act is the act of uttering words, phrases, clauses. It is the act of conveying literal meaning by means of syntax, lexicon and phonology.

9. Speech community refers to a group of people who form a community and share at least one speech variety as well as similar linguistic norms.

10. Sociolect refers to a variety of language used by people belonging to

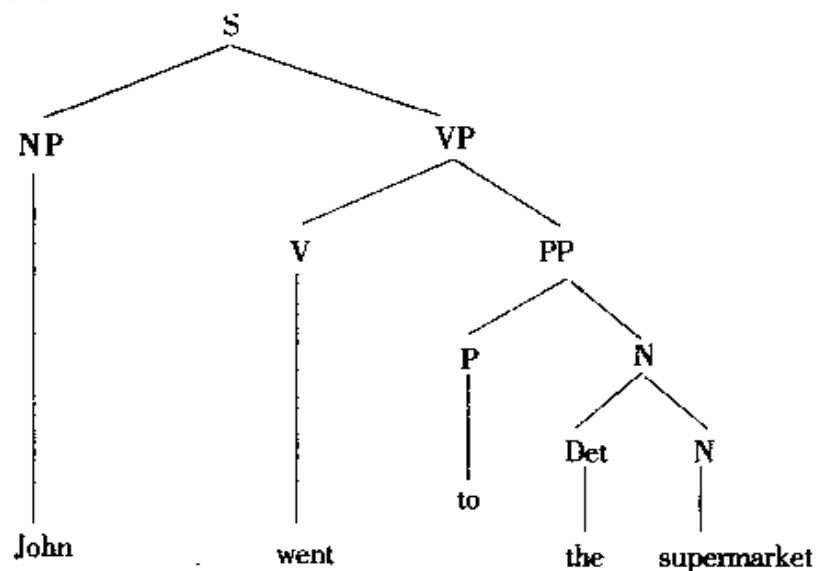
a particular social class.

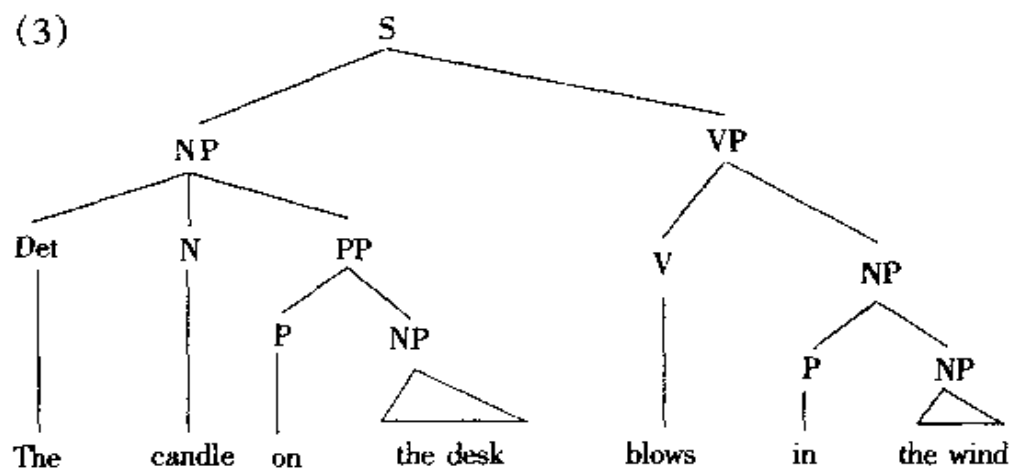
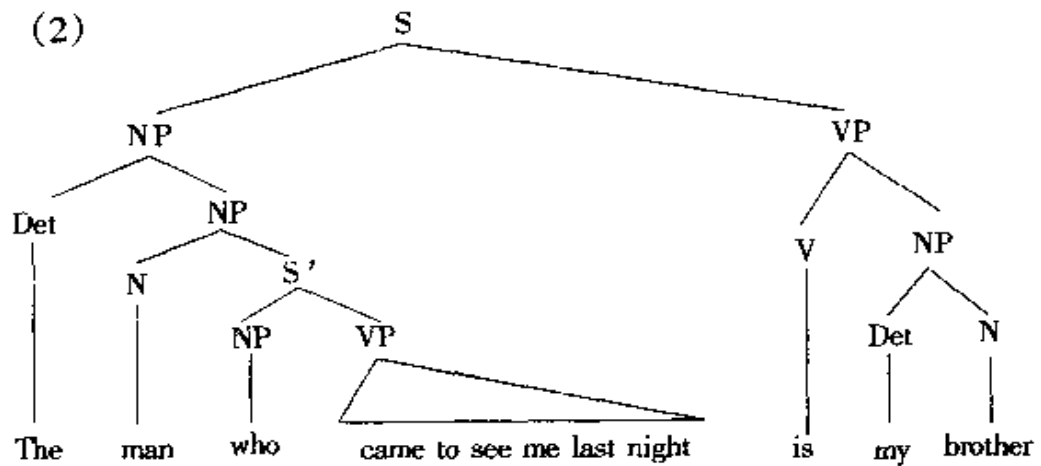
- II . 1.F 2.F 3.F 4.F 5.T
 6.T 7.F 8.T 9.T 10.F

- III . 1.clipping; 2.NP、VP;
 3.Free morphemes; 4.language;
 5.diacritics; 6.Semantics;
 7.Contextualism; 8.sentence meaning;
 9.Constatives; 10.social groups.

- IV . 1.C 2.A 3.C 4.A 5.B
 6.B 7.A 8.D 9.C 10.D

V .1. (1)





2. plane (shortening); VOA (acronym);
 sitcom (blending); Jazzothèque (blending);
 window - shop (compound); laundry - list (compound);
 taxwise (compound); childlike (affixation).

3. There is a wide variety of possible uses of language, but before we survey these various uses, we must first distinguish between using language to do something and using language in doing something. When we focus on what people use language to do, we focus on what a person is doing with words in particular situations; we focus on the intentions, purpose, beliefs, and desires that a speaker has in speaking.

4. In what have come to be known as Broca's area, Wernicke's area and angular gyrus, all located in the hemisphere of the brain.

Model Test 2

(模拟试题二)

I . Define the following terms, giving examples for illustration if it is necessary.

1. Register:
2. Pidgin:
3. Language acquisition:
4. Cerebral cortex:
5. The Sapir – Whorf hypothesis:
6. Subvocal speech:
7. Brain lateralization:
8. Behaviorist learning theory:
9. Telegraphic speech:
10. Language transfer:

II . Indicate the following statements true or false. .

1. Phonetics studies all the sounds that occur in the world, while phonology only studies the sounds of a particular language. ()
2. The Webster's Third International Dictionary was a failure because it edited some archaic words which are not used now. ()
3. A stem can be a free root, a bound morpheme or a derived form itself. ()
4. Children's grammar develops gradually until it becomes exactly the adult's grammar. ()
5. Language is a system which has two sets of structures, one of sounds and the other of meaning. ()

6. Often the low variety is regarded as a literary standard called a classical language. ()
7. As the process of communication is essentially a process of conveying meaning in a certain context, pragmatics can also be regarded as a kind of meaning study. ()
8. A perlocutionary act is the act of expressing the speaker's intention. ()
9. There are words more or less the same meaning used in different regional dialects. ()
10. Componential analysis is based upon the belief that the meaning of a word can not be dissected into meaning components, called semantic features. ()

III. Fill in the blanks.

1. The sentence "I love thee not" was considered normal form of negation in _____ English.
2. The phrase structure rules can generate an infinite number of sentences, and sentences with infinite length shows that sentences are _____.
3. A _____ is the smallest meaningful unit of a language.
4. The study of the characteristics of human sound - making is called _____.
5. The pronunciation of the sound /p/ in /pit/ and /spit/ differ in the aspect of _____.
6. One way out of the communication dilemma is language standardization known as _____.
7. The brain is divided into two roughly symmetrical halves, called _____, one on the right and one on the left.
8. Further support comes from the fact that it becomes progressively more difficult to acquire language after the age at which the lateralization is _____.
9. _____ utterances sometimes show an overextension or undertension

of reference.

10. The _____ of the learner's interlanguage is believed to be a major source of incorrect forms resistant to further instruction.

IV. Mark the choice that can be best fitted.

1. Language is a system of _____.
A. symbols B. forms
C. diacritics D. design features
2. Because it distinguishes meaning voicing is a phonological feature in _____.
A. Chinese B. English
C. both English and Chinese D. all known language
3. The words *donnate*, *babysit*, *enthuse* are formed in the way of _____.
A. compound B. abbreviation
C. backformation D. blending
4. _____ delivered an important paper in 1786, which symbolized the beginning of the study of Indo-European language.
A. William Jones B. Franc Bopp
C. Rasmus Rask D. Jacob Grim
5. Which of the following pairs is a minimal pair? _____.
A. rope rod B. beam bin
C. pat boot D. boot but
6. Which description of the meaning components of the word "father" is right? _____.
A. + human, + adult, - male
B. + human, - adult, + male
C. - human, + adult, - male
D. + human, + adult, + male
7. A word with several meanings is called _____.
A. an abnormal word B. a polysemous word

- C. a synonymous word D. none of the above
8. "Words are names or labels for things." This view is called _____ in semantic theory.
- A. mentalism B. conceptual theory
C. naming D. contextual theory
9. Wuhan learners of English tend to pronounce "night" as "light". This shows _____.
- A. they cannot pronounce the sound [n]
B. they do not like to pronounce nasal sounds
C. interlanguage interference because there is not the sound [n] in Wuhan dialect
D. their teachers do not have a good teaching method
10. At the age of four, children _____.
- A. can master the essentials of their mother tongue.
B. can only babble several sounds.
C. can name the things around them only.
D. can write out all the grammatical rule of their mother tongue.

V. Answer the following questions as comprehensively as possible, giving examples if necessary.

- What's the importance of the discovery of langue and parole?
- All the following words contain a main stress and the second stress, mark them.
fundamental; greenhouse; impossibility; rational; reminiscence; hotdog.
- Study the following words and tell what causes the phonological change.
① England [ɪŋɡləəd] ② winter [ˈwɪnə]
③ paradigm [ˈpærədaɪm] ④ wash [wɒʃ]
⑤ some [sʌm]
- How are sentence meaning and utterance meaning related, and how

do they differ?

5. Give your remarks on the following statement that excessive use of euphemism may have negative effects.

参考答案

I .

1. Register refers a functional speech or language variety that involves degrees of formality depending on the speech situation concerned.

2. A " Pidgin" is a mixed or blended language used by people who speak different languages for restricted purposes such as trading . It has a limited vocabulary and reduced grammatical structures.

3. Language acquisition refers to the development of the child's acquisition of his mother tongue or first language. i. e, how he comes to understand and to speak the language of his community.

4. Cerebral cortex is the outside surface of the brain which receives messages from all the sensory organs and where human cognitive abilities reside.

5. The Sapir - Whorf hypothesis is a theory put forward by the American anthropological linguists Sapir and Whorf. This hypothesis states that the way people view the world is determined wholly or partly by the structure of their native language.

6. Subvocal speech is a term used to thought when thought and language are identical or closely parallel to each other.

7. Brain lateralization refers to the localization of cognitive and perceptual functions in particular hemisphere of the brain.

8. Behaviorist learning theory, a theory of psychology suggests that the learner's verbal behavior is conditioned or reinforced through association between stimulus and response when applied to first language acquisition.

9. The telegraphic speech refers to the early speech of children. It is so called because it lacks the same sorts of words which adults typically

leave out of telegrams. Such as non – substantive words and inflectional morphemes.

10. Language transfer refers to the learners will subconsciously use their knowledge in learning a second language. Transfer can be either positive or negative.

II .

- | | | | | |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|
| 1.F | 2.F | 3.F | 4.F | 5.T |
| 6.F | 7.T | 8.F | 9.T | 10.F |

III .

- | | |
|----------------|--------------------|
| 1. Middle; | 2. recursive; |
| 3. morpheme; | 4. phonetics; |
| 5. aspiration; | 6. planning; |
| 7. hemisphere; | 8. complete; |
| 9. One-word | 10. fossilization. |

IV .

- | | | | | |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|
| 1.A | 2.B | 3.C | 4.A | 5.D |
| 6.D | 7.B | 8.C | 9.C | 10.A |

V .

1. The distinction between *langue* and *parole* was made by the Swiss linguist F· de – saussure early this century. *Langue* refers to the abstract linguistic system shared by all the members of a speech community and *parole* refers to the realization of *langue* in actual use. The distinction between *langue* and *parole* is important. In distinguishing them, we are separating what is social from, what is individual and what is essential from what is accidental. It's the distinction between *langue* and *parole* that leads to the distinction between phonetics and phonology. For example, when we describe the speech sound in "bed", we found that they are different each

time. They are uttered even by the same speaker; However the identity of "bed" does not depend on the nature of these actual sounds, but on the distinctions that separate "bed" from "bet", "bad" etc.

The same distinction between what belongs to particular acts and what belongs to the system leads us also to the distinction between utterance and sentence. An utterance is a unit of parole, a sentence is a unit of langue.

The distinction is also essential for any field of research to distinguish. What belongs to the underlying system which makes possible various types of behavior and what belongs to actual instances of such behavior.

2. ,funda'mental; 'green,house; im,possi'bility;
,ratio'nale; ,remini'scence. ,hot'dog

3. ① sound assimilation; ② sound deletion; ③ sound deletion;
④ sound insertion; ⑤ sound assimilation.

4. Utterance – meaning is based on sentence – meaning; the former is concrete and context – dependent and the latter is abstract and decontextualized.

5. I quite agree to this statement. An excessive use of euphemism may have negative effects. As a matter of fact, many euphemisms have become clichés that are to be avoided in formal speech and writing. They also tend to be wordy and to give writing a timid quality. In addition, euphemism can be evasive or even deceitful. Because they are often improperly used to obscure the plain language.

Synthetic Exercises

(综合练习题)

一、填空题

1. To many people, a linguist is the same as a _____, one who can speak several languages fluently.
2. _____ phonetics studies the movement of the vocal organs of producing the sounds of speech; _____ phonetics studies the way the sounds of speech are perceived by the human ear.
3. _____ studies the neurological basis of language development and use in human beings.
4. _____ is concerned with variation and use in relation to the cultural patterns and beliefs of man.
5. The Egyptians considered themselves to have the oldest civilization and asserted that the original human language was _____.
6. The theory that primitive man made involuntary vocal noises while performing heavy work has been called the _____ theory.
7. The theory that language arose from instinctive emotional cries, expressive of pain or joy has been called the _____ theory.
8. The theory that language arose from human beings' instinctive need for contact with his companion has been called the _____ theory.
9. The reason why languages other than our own sound like gibberish is because we have not mastered the complexity of their _____.
10. Language is called upon not only for communications, but also for _____ and cultural _____.
11. Language is an _____ system of articulated sounds made use of by a group of humans as a means of carrying on the affairs of their society.
12. The earliest grammar of any language was _____ grammar by

the Hindu scholar Panini.

13. The Greek approach to language was taken over by the _____ and applied with little change to their language _____.

14. The 15th and 16th centuries were marked by the _____ of views of language and an increased awareness of the _____ among languages.

15. The beginning of modern linguistics was from the late 19th and early 19th century when the _____ method was developed and established.

16. Chomsky's theory of generative grammar revolutionized work in linguistics in 1957, with the publication of his book _____.

17. The language of Britain was _____ when the Romans invaded the land in 55 and 54 BC.

18. The three Teutonic groups established in England by the successive invasions after AD 450 were: _____, _____ and _____.

19. The most memorable writing in the Middle English period was _____ by Geoffrey Chaucer.

20. Speech takes place when the organs of speech move to produce a pattern of _____. These movements have an effect on the _____ coming from the lungs.

21. If the glottis is wide open, the air passes freely through the cords, but if it is narrowed, the presence of the air causes the cords to vibrate, producing _____ sounds.

22. Consonant sounds can be either _____ or _____, while all vowel sounds are _____.

23. In the case of vowel sounds, the pharynx and mouth cavities are changed by the shape and position of the _____ and the _____.

24. The sounds t, d, p and b are made when the _____ in the mouth is suddenly opened and the air allowed to escape in a little puff or explosion.

25. The sounds f and v are the result of air escaping under friction be-

tween the lower _____ and upper _____.

26. When the _____ is raised, the air cannot escape through the nose and the sounds m, n, and ng cannot be made.

27. _____ sounds are produced by lowering the velum.

28. _____ sounds are produced by increasing the muscular effort in the lower jaw.

29. _____ sounds are produced by retracting the body of the tongue from the neutral position.

30. Vowels can be described by referring to the part of the tongue, which is at the highest point in the mouth. If the front of the tongue is at the highest point near the hard palate, a _____ vowel is produced. If the back of the tongue is at the highest point near the soft palate, a _____ vowel is produced.

31. One element in the description of vowels is the part of the tongue, which is at the highest point in the mouth. A second element is the _____ to which that part of tongue is raised.

32. If the tongue is placed as low as possible in the mouth, the vowel which results is an _____ vowel.

33. If, in making a vowel sound, the organs of speech remain in one position without moving to another, the result is a _____ vowel. If the organs of speech start in the position for one vowel and then immediately glide to the position of another, the result is a _____.

34. Diphthongs are represented by two symbols in phonetic transcription, the first shows the position of the organs of speech at the _____ of the glide, and the second shows their approximate position at the _____ of the glide.

35. If the tongue produces a diphthong by moving from a more open position to a more closed position in the mouth, the diphthong is known as a _____ diphthong.

36. The diphthongs made with a movement of the tongue towards the center are known as _____ diphthongs.

37. Labial refers to the use of the _____ in the process of articulating a sound.

38. Palatals are sounds articulated by the _____ of the tongue against the _____ palate.

39. A nasal is produced by the release of air through the _____.

40. A _____ is formed by an obstacle placed in the middle of the mouth, the air being free to escape at one or both sides.

41. Language may be defined as systematized sequences of vocal _____ that carry meaning to all members of a given cultural group.

42. Those who are interested primarily in distinctive sounds are called _____.

43. The sounds k and g are in distinctive opposition in English and they are themselves distinctive sounds or _____.

44. The contrast between k and g enables us to distinguish between words, which would otherwise be _____.

45. The sounds and the meaning of a word are _____.

46. The most elemental grammatical units in a language are _____.

47. Some morphemes are _____ in that they must be joined to other morphemes, and are always parts of words and never words by themselves. Other morphemes are _____ in that they need not be attached to other morphemes.

48. A small set of conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns belongs to "_____ class", while the largest part of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs belongs to "_____ class".

49. Certain basic _____ originated from traditional grammar are an inescapable part of any approach to language analysis.

50. Traditional grammarians adopted the practice of presenting a _____ of a typical verb from each conjugation and letting it serve as model for other verbs in the _____.

51. Traditional grammarians used the method of _____ to describe

sentence structure.

52. Structural grammar placed great emphasis on analyzing the _____ system of language.

53. Saussure described _____ study as slicing through the trunk of a tree to study the arrangement of rings. _____ study was then seen as tracing the development of the rings by comparing two synchronic slices.

54. Having discovered great variety among North American languages, Boas was quickly convinced that each language had to be described in terms of its own _____ system.

55. The structuralists focused their attention on describing the _____ of the spoken language because they felt that _____ in language was too messy to deal with in an objective manner.

56. In structural grammar, distributional analysis is used to define _____, which are taken as the basic building blocks of language.

57. K – terminal string is the _____ string of the derivation.

58. According to TG grammarians, perhaps the most important fact about the sentences of human languages is that all sentences have both a _____ structure and a _____ structure.

59. Transformational rules do not change the basic _____ of sentences.

60. In TG Grammar, the syntactic component provides the _____ for a sentence, whereas the phonological component provides the _____ of the sentence and the semantic component provides its _____.

61. When different words are pronounced the same but have different forms, they are called _____.

62. _____ are written identically but sound differently.

63. Some sentences are ambiguous because they have both a literal meaning and a non – literal meaning. The non – literal meaning is also called _____ meaning.

64. _____ is a form of comparison in which an exact name for something is replaced by a term closely associated with it.

65. The study of _____ holding between individual lexical items in the elaboration of a theory of structural semantics by _____ is a great contribution to semantics.

66. Under antonyms, a distinction is sometimes made between pairs like male and female, and pairs like big and small according to whether or not the words are _____.

67. Presuppositions refers to the _____ that must be met in order for the intended meaning of a sentence to be regarded as acceptable.

68. Contradiction means if one sentence is true, the other must be _____.

69. The _____ act is the actual uttering of a sentence with a particular meaning; the _____ act is the intent that the speaker has in uttering the sentence; and the _____ act is the result achieved in uttering the sentence.

70. _____ is a theory of communication in which the sender sequentially encodes the information to be communicated into a signal that travels to a receiver, who then sequentially decodes it to recover the original message.

71. Likewise, Message Model portrays language as a bridge between speaker and hearer whereby "private" ideas are communicated by "public" sounds, which thereby function as the _____ for communicating the relevant message.

72. The process of converting a signal in some communication system back into the original message is termed _____.

73. We often speak _____; that is, we do not mean what our words mean.

74. _____ has often been viewed as reflection of speech.

75. Chinese writing utilizes a system of characters, each of which represents the "meaning" of a _____.

76. The term sound writing is sometimes used in place of _____ writing.

77. The study of the position and movement of the body and its parts during conversation is called _____.

78. The study of the space maintained between two speakers in conversation is called _____.

79. _____ choice is usually regarded as a matter of form or expression. But this view is misleading, for writers obviously choose _____ too.

80. To speak of style as choice, one must recognize not only that there is _____ of choice, but also that there are _____ on choice.

81. The _____ is a way of writing, a manner of expressing one's thoughts and feelings in words; it is like the _____ of grain in a piece of wood.

82. _____ is often used to mean good, clear English. Bad writing is caused not so much by mistakes in grammar as by weakness in _____.

83. Language is a system of _____ vocal _____ used for human _____.

84. _____ tests attempt to measure the learner's aptitude or natural abilities to learn.

85. The nondistinctive sounds are members of the same phoneme, and are known as _____.

86. A syllable consists of three parts; the onset, the _____ and the coda, e.g., [men].

87. The _____ is the smallest unit in terms of relationship between expression and content, a unit, which cannot be divided without destroying or drastically altering the meaning.

88. Positional relation, or word _____, refers to the sequential arrangement of words in a language.

89. _____ refers to the process of construction where one clause is included in the sentence (main clause) in syntactic subordination.

90. According to the "semantic triangle" presented by Ogden and

Richards, the symbol or _____ refers to the linguistic elements (words, sentences, etc.), the _____ refers to the object in the world of experience, and the thought or reference refers to concept.

91. Towards the end of the _____ century, the International Phonetic Alphabet came into use. The principle was to use one letter to represent one _____. As some sounds differ slightly, symbols called diacritics were used to show detailed articulatory features of sounds. The phonetic transcription with diacritics is called a _____ transcription; otherwise it is called a _____ transcription.

92. _____ phonetics studies the human speech organs and the way in which the speech _____ are produced.

93. The model of the standard theory of TG Grammar has three major components, _____ component, _____ component and _____ component. The _____ component interprets the meaning of the sentence.

94. _____ is a way in which new words may be formed from already existing words by subtracting an affix, which is thought to be part of the old word.

95. In English, nouns, _____, and _____ make up the largest part of the vocabulary. They are called open classes.

96. Morphology is the study of the internal _____ of words and the way in which _____ are formed.

97. _____ refers to the phenomenon that the same word may have a set of different meanings.

98. In communication, gestures and eye - movement are called _____ features.

99. English is changing. It is moving towards greater _____.

100. The task of a linguist is to _____ and understand the general principles upon which all _____ are built.

101. _____ phonetics studies the human speech organs and the way in which the speech _____ are produced.

102. Auditory phonetics is the study of the _____ of sounds by the human _____.

103. In English, _____, _____, _____ and _____ make up the largest part of the vocabulary. They are called open classes.

104. A linguistic study is _____ if it describes and analyses facts observed; it is _____ if it tries to lay down rules for "correct" behavior.

105. Generally speaking, we can divided phonetics into at least three branches: _____ phonetics, _____ phonetics and _____ phonetics.

106. The three subtypes of affixes are _____, _____ and _____.

107. IC Analysis can be represented in different ways such as tree.

108. _____ means idea picture or idea writing.

109. Traditional grammar lays emphasis on correctness, linguistic excellence, the use of _____ models and the priority of the written language.

110. Language has at least seven basic functions: _____, directive, informative, interrogative, expressive, evocative, and _____.

111. Langue refers to the abstract linguistic system shared by all the members of a speech community and _____ refers to the actualized language, or realization of language.

112. The vocal _____ are similar to strings such as one on a violin or a piano.

113. IPA was devised in _____.

114. When two sounds never occur in the same environment they said to be in _____.

115. A _____ is any morpheme or combination of morphemes to which an affix can be added.

116. _____ construction is just the opposite of endocentric construction.

117. The semantic components of the word _____ are + Human,

+ Adult, + Male, - - Married.

118. The view that language can be regarded as the fess of thought can be dated back to the time of _____.

119. In sociolinguistics, _____ refers to a group of institutionalized social situations typically constrained by a common set of behavioral rules.

120. _____ means that language can be used to refer to contexts removed from the immediate situations of the speaker.

121. The distinction of linguistic potential and actual linguistic behavior is made by M. A. K. Halliday, a/an _____ linguist.

122. The _____ provided by the lungs has to undergo a number of modifications to acquire the quality of a speech sound.

123. [I] may be described as an unrounded high front vowel and [_____] is a rounded low back vowel.

124. H. Sweet made a distinction between narrow and _____ transcriptions.

125. By the relation of _____ one means that words of different sets of clauses may permit, or require, the occurrence of a word of another set or class to form a sentence or a particular part of a sentence.

126. The _____ category is used in the analysis of word classes to identify the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence.

127. Predication analysis is to break down predications into their constituents: _____ and a _____.

128. Word meaning changes by modes of extension, narrowing, degradation, elevation and _____.

129. Speech Act Theory was proposed by _____ in 1962.

130. Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human _____.

二、英汉术语互译

语言层次

词类

词汇插入原则

词汇学

线性结构

语言决定论

(大脑的) 语言侧化

语言相对论

禁忌语

外来词

言内行为

主句

方式准则

质量准则

数量准则

关联准则

意义

意义关系

委婉语

谱系树

意义特征

语言僵化

自由语素

自由变化

擦音

虚词

功能性变化

生成语法

生成语义学

滑音

喉音

声门

可分等级的反义词

语法性

元音大变位

大脑半球的语言优势

层次结构

历史语言学

独词句

同音异义; 同形异义

下义关系

言外行为

印欧语系

屈折变化

屈折语素

输入

纳入, 接受

干扰

语际语

内在化

国际音标

语调

直觉; 语感

核心句

唇音

语言习得机制

语言习得

语言行为

(大脑的) 语言中枢

(大脑的) 语言机制

语言感知
语言变异
交际能力
比较重建法
语言能力
互补性反义现象
互补分布
成分分析法
意义成分
意念观
辅音
成分结构
制约
实词
语境；上下文
语境论
对比分析法
会话含义
合作原则
关键期；临界期
深层结构
所指；所指意义；外延
齿音
派生语素
描写语言学
识别特征
限定词
变异
历时语言学
变音符号；附加符号
方言

两耳分听测试
双言现象
二合元音；复合元音
方位参数
不受时空限制的特性
区别性特征
区别音
深层结构
结构二重性
子句
含义
实体
插入音
错误分析法
词源学
词首字母缩略词
受话人
毗邻条件
毗邻参数
加词缀法
塞擦音
非亚语系
一致关系规则
音位变体
齿龈音（的）
角形脑回
反义现象
失语症
应用语言学
任意性
论元

发音语音学	monophthong
发音变项	morphological rule
同化	morphology
近似化	mother tongue
听觉语音学, 感知语音学	Move α
逆向构词法	movement rule
行为主义	naming theory
行为主义心理学	narrow transcription
双唇音	narrowing of meaning
双语现象	nasality
混合法	negator
借用	neuron
黏着语素	Old English
大脑左右半球的侧化	optimum age
分叉点	oral cavity
宽式标音	overextension
保姆语	overgeneralization
格标记	overt thought
向心双元音	palatal
大脑弹性	parameter
略写法	performance error
封闭类词	perlocutionary act
代码切换	phone
同源词	phoneme
粘着	phonemic contrast
并列下义词	phonetic feature
组合规则	phonetics
metaphor	phonology
Middle English	pidgin
minimal pair	plosive
Modern English	polysemy

postpone
prepose
postvocalic
pragmatics
predication
predication analysis
prefix
prescriptive (grammar)
presupposition
propositional content
protolanguage
proxemics
Psycholinguistics
puberty
Received Pronunciation
recursiveness
reference
register
relational opposites
resonance chamber
restricted code
restricted language
retroflex
rewrite rule
rhetorics
rising – falling
root
SAE
Sapir-Whorf hypothesis
second language acquisition
segment

semantic deviation
semantic broadening
semantic narrowing
semantics
semantic triangle
sequential rule
sibilant
Sino-Tibetan
sociolinguistics
soft palate
specifier
speech act
speech variety
S – structure
Standard language
Stem
stop
stress
structural constituency
structural linguistics
subscript
suffix
suprasegmental feature
switching
syllabic
symbol
synchronic linguistics
synonymy
syntactic ambiguity
syntactics
synthetic language

systemic grammar	Universal Grammar
target language	utterance
tautology	validity
telegraphic speech	vernacular
tense and aspect	vocal cord
tone	vowel
transfer	vulgarism
Transformational – Generative Grammar	weak declension
transformational rule	Wernicke's area
underextension	X – bar theory
	zero

三、单项选择练习

Choice

- _____ deals with the way in which a language varies through geographical space.
A. Linguistic geography B. Lexicology
C. Lexicography D. Sociolinguistics
- _____ deals with language application to other fields, particularly education.
A. Linguistic geography B. Sociolinguistics
C. Applied linguistics D. Comparative linguistics
- One who can speak several languages fluently is called _____.
A. A polyglot B. a linguist
C. A grammarian D. a rhetorician
- Language at first consisted of ejaculations of pain, fear, surprise, pleasure, anger and so on.
A. thythmical B. imitative
C. expressive D. emotional
- _____ is one who makes value judgements about the worth and effectiveness, the literary merit of the works of a writer's creative

imagination.

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------|
| A. A rhetorician | B. A grammarian |
| C. A literary critic | D. A linguist |
6. The "sing-song" theory was put forward by the great Danish linguist _____.
- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| A. Otto Jespersen | B. Ferdinand de Saussure |
| C. John Lyons | D. Daniel Jones |
7. The theory that primitive language was an imitation of natural sound, such as animal cries, has been called the _____ theory.
- | | |
|--------------|----------------|
| A. yo-he-ho | B. pooh - pooh |
| C. ding-dong | D. bow - wow |
8. The "ta-ta" theory is sometimes called the _____ theory.
- | | |
|------------|--------------|
| A. Musical | B. pooh-pooh |
| C. Contact | D. gesture |
9. Writing is a secondary language form based upon _____.
- | | |
|------------|------------|
| A. speech | B. gesture |
| C. emotion | D. sounds |
10. _____ means the lack of a logical connection between the form of something and its expression in sound.
- | | |
|------------------|-----------------|
| A. Ambiguity | B. Abstractness |
| C. Arbitrariness | D. Fuzziness |
11. By _____ it is meant that something represents something else.
- | | |
|-----------|--------------|
| A. sound | B. utterance |
| C. symbol | D. speech |
12. _____ wrote the oldest known grammar of *Technē Grammatikē*.
- | | |
|------------|-------------|
| A. Donatus | B. Thrax |
| C. Varro | D. Priscian |
13. The earliest significant work in comparing languages was done by an Englishman _____.
- | | |
|---------|----------|
| A. Bopp | B. Jones |
|---------|----------|

- C. Rask D. Lowth
14. The author of Grammatical Categories is _____.
A. Priscian B. Varro
C. Donatus D. Thrax
15. Of the following linguists, _____ should be grouped into American School.
A. Boas B. Jakobson
C. Firth D. Sapir
16. The London speech that was illustrated by Shakespeare's writing was generally termed as _____.
A. Old English B. Late Modern English
C. Middle English D. Early Modern English
17. The great uniformity of Early Modern English was the result of several major factors. Which of the following should NOT be included?
A. Introduction of printing press.
B. Great Vowel Shift.
C. The spread of London dialect.
D. The growing literacy.
18. The first major new development in linguistics until the 13th century was _____ grammar.
A. structural B. speculative
C. generative D. traditional
19. The most recognizable differences between American English and British English are in _____ and vocabulary.
A. structure B. grammar
C. usage D. pronunciation
20. Pitch variation is known as _____ when its patterns are imposed on sentences.
A. intonation B. tone
C. pronunciation D. voice

- A. historical
B. structural
C. synchronic
D. prescriptive
29. _____ sounds are produced by maintaining the airflow in the voal cavity (but not in the nasal cavity).
A. Consonantal
B. Back
C. continuant
D. Tense
30. _____ is a combination of a plosive and a fricative.
A. A stop
B. A palatal
C. A rolled
D. An affricate
31. In the case of vowel sounds, the _____ and the mouth cavities are changed by the shape and position of the tongue and lips.
A. nose
B. larynx
C. pharynx
D. uvula
32. Vowels that are produced between the positions for a front and back vowel are called _____ vowels.
A. open
B. front
C. central
D. close
33. The vowel [u:] in [fʊd] is a _____ vowel.
A. open front rounded
B. open back rounded
C. close back unrounded
D. close back rounded
34. If the tongue produces a diphthong by moving from a more open position to a more closed position in the mouth, the diphthong is known as a _____ diphthong.
A. narrow
B. wide
C. closing
D. centering
35. The diphthongs that are made with a movement of the tongue towards the center are known as _____ diphthongs.
A. wide
B. closing
C. narrow
D. centering
36. The consonant sound /p/ is described as _____.
A. voiceless bilabial stop
B. voiceless alveolar stop

- C. voiced bilabial stop D. voiced alveolar stop
37. Palatal semi-vowel refers to the sound _____.
 A. /n/ B. /h/
 C. /w/ D. /j/
38. The sounds k and g are separate _____.
 A. allophones B. phonemes
 C. morphemes D. allomorphs
39. A phoneme is a group of similar sounds called _____.
 A. minimal pairs B. allomorphs
 C. phones D. allophones
40. The most elemental grammatical units in a language are _____.
 A. phones B. words
 C. morphemes D. phrases
41. Morphemes that represent “tense”, “number”, “gender”, “case” and so forth are called _____ morphemes.
 A. inflectional B. bound
 C. free D. derivational
42. Traditional grammarians began with _____ definition of the sentence and its components.
 A. notional; B. structural
 C. prescriptive D. descriptive
43. Many modern linguists have criticized traditional grammarians for adopting a _____ approach to language study.
 A. analytical B. descriptive
 C. prescriptive D. pedagogical
44. In structural grammar, distributional analysis is used to define _____, which are taken as the basic building block.
 A. phonemes B. morphemes
 C. words D. syllables
45. _____ are the basic elementary sentences of the language, the

stuff from which all else is made.

- A. Simple sentences
- B. Transforms
- C. Kernel sentences
- D. Complex sentences

46. Transformational rules do not change the basis _____ of sentences.

- A. meaning
- B. structure
- C. form
- D. sound pattern

47. _____ are written identically but sound differently.

- A. Homographs
- B. Homophones
- C. Homonyms
- D. Synonyms

48. Two words that are opposite in meaning are called _____.

- A. synonyms
- B. homonyms
- C. antonyms
- D. homophones

49. Japanese is the only major language that used _____ writing system.

- A. a syllabic
- B. a word-writing
- C. an alphabetic
- D. a logographic

50. Linguists give priority to the spoken language not the written language because

- A. vocal sounds are derived from writing systems
- B. speech precedes writing everywhere in the world
- C. we have recording devices to study speech
- D. spoken language precedes written language only in Indo-European languages

51. A linguist is interested in _____.

- A. speech sounds only
- B. all sounds
- C. vowels only
- D. consonants only

52. Which of the following sounds is a voiceless bilabial stop?

- A. [p]
- B. [m]
- C. [b]
- D. [t]

53. Which of the following sounds is a voiceless affricate?

- A. [j]
- B. [tʃ]
- C. [z]
- D. [dʒ]

54. Which of the following sounds is a central vowel?
 A. [ə:] B. [i] C. [ou] D. [a:]
55. There are _____ morphemes in the word "boyish".
 A. one B. two C. three D. four
56. In English "-ise" and "-tion" are called _____.
 A. prefixes B. suffixes
 C. infixes D. free morphemes
57. The words "make" and "bus" are called _____ because they can occur unattached.
 A. derivational morphemes B. inflectional morphemes
 C. bound morphemes D. free morphemes
58. F. de Saussure is a (n) _____ linguist.
 A. American B. British
 C. Swiss D. Russian
59. The International Phonetic Association devised the INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET in _____.
 A. 1818 B. 1800 C. 1988 D. 1888
60. Nouns, verbs and adjectives can be classified as _____.
 A. lexical words. B. grammatical words
 C. function words D. form words
61. What is the construction of the sentence "The boy smiled"?
 A. Exocentric B. Endocentric
 C. Coordinate D. Subordinate
62. The study of language development over a period of time is generally termed as _____ linguistics.
 A. applied B. diachronic
 C. comparative D. synchronic
63. N. Chomsky is a (n) _____ linguist.
 A. Canadian B. American
 C. French D. Swiss
64. In the following sounds, _____ is a voiceless stop.

- A. [p] B. [d] C. [b] D. [g]
65. In the following sounds, _____ is a palatal fricative.
A. [s] B. [θ] C. [ʃ] D. [f]
66. In the following sounds, _____ is a voiceless stop.
A. [tʃ] B. [dʒ] C. [v] D. [c]
67. _____ are produced when the nasal passage is opened by lowering the soft plate at the back of the throat and the air is allowed to pass through it.
A. Semi – vowels B. Affricates
C. Nasals D. Gildes
68. _____ are produced when the obstruction created by the speech organs is total and audibly released.
A. Back vowels B. Stops
C. Fricatives D. Glides
69. The letter combination “un – ” in the words “unhappy”, “unhealthy” is called a _____.
A. prefix B. suffix
C. free morpheme D. root
70. The words “dog” and “dread” are called _____ because they can occur unattached.
A. derivational morphemes B. bound morphemes
C. inflectional morphemes D. free morphemes
71. The words such as “lab”, “doc” are _____.
A. formed by blending B. acronyms
C. coined by back formation D. clipped words
72. At the age of four, children _____.
A. can master the essentials of their mother tongue
B. can only babble several sounds
C. can name the things around them only
D. can write out all the grammatical rules of their mother tongue
73. L. bloomfield is a famous _____ structural linguist.

- A. British B. Russian
C. American D. French
74. A word with several meanings is called _____.
A. mentalism B. a polysemous word
C. a synonymous word D. None of the above
75. "Words are names of labels for things." This view is called _____ in semantic theory.
A. mentalism B. conceptual theory
C. naming theory D. contextual theory
76. We call the relation between "animal" and "cow" as _____.
A. polysemy B. antonymy
C. homophony D. hyponymy
77. The pair of words "wide/narrow" are called _____.
A. gradable opposites B. complementary antonyms
C. co-hyponyms D. relational opposites
78. The word "language" is sometimes used to refer to the whole of a person's language called _____.
A. scientific language B. idiolect
C. colloquial language D. formal language
79. Which of the following words is entirely arbitrary?
A. tree B. crash
C. typewriter D. bang
80. The function of the sentence "A nice day, isn't it?" is _____.
A. directive B. informative
C. performative D. phatic
81. The function of the sentence "Water boils at 100 degree centigrade" is _____.
A. interrogative B. directive
C. informative D. performative
82. The phrase "men and women" belongs to the _____ construction.

tion.

- A. predicate
- B. coordinate
- C. subordinate
- D. exocentric

83. Which of the following two-term sets show the feature of complementarity?

- A. single/married
- B. lend/borrow
- C. hot/cold
- D. old/young

84. What is the meaning relationship between the two words "flower/rose"?

- A. Homonymy
- B. Antonymy
- C. Polyusemy
- D. Hyponymy

85. _____ covers the study of language use in relation to context, and in particular the study of linguistic communication.

- A. Semantics
- B. Pragmatics
- C. Sociolinguistics
- D. a logographic

86. _____ deals with how language is acquired, understood and produced.

- A. Sociolinguistics
- B. Psycholinguistics
- C. Neurolinguistics
- D. Anthropological linguistics

87. _____ is concerned with the diversity of language as it relates to various sociological factors.

- A. Psycholinguistics
- B. Neurolinguistics
- C. Anthropological linguistics
- D. Sociolinguistics

88. One who is primarily interested in effective written or spoken communication is called _____.

- A. a rhetorician
- B. a polyglot
- C. a literary critic
- D. a linguist

89. Language is _____.

- A. instinctive
- B. non-instinctive
- C. static
- D. genetically transmitted

90. The theory that language was a kind of song without words has

been known as the _____ theory.

- A. pooh-pooh
- B. sing-song
- C. bow-wow
- D. yo-he-ho

91. The symbols are said to be arbitrary because they do not _____ what they represent.

- A. resemble
- B. mean
- C. differ from
- D. speech

92. The fact that ability to speak a language is transmitted from generation to generation by a process of learning, and not genetically is usually referred to as _____.

- A. performance
- B. language acquisition
- C. cultural transmission
- D. competence

93. The author of *Ars Minor* is _____.

- A. Thrax
- B. Priscian
- C. Saussure
- D. Donatus

94. _____ century is considered to be the beginning of Modern English.

- A. 17 th
- B. 19 th
- C. 18 th
- D. 16 th

95. An aspirated p, an unaspirated p and an unreleased p are _____ of the p phoneme.

- A. analogues
- B. tagmemes
- C. morphemes
- D. allophones

96. _____ is formed by a narrowing of the air passage at some point so that the air in escaping makes a kind of hissing sound.

- A. A plosive
- B. A fricative
- C. An affricate
- D. Laetrile

97. Conventionally a _____ is put in slashes.

- A. allophone
- B. phone
- C. phoneme
- D. morpheme

98. _____ sounds are produced by retracting the body of the tongue from the neutral position.

A. Front B. Back C. Tense D. Lax

99. A _____ consists of a vowel sound, either on its own or in the company of one or more consonant sounds.

A. syllable B. phone
C. phoneme D. morpheme

100. If, in making a vowel sound, the organs of speech remain in one position without moving to another, the result is a _____.

A. pure vowel B. close vowel
C. diphthong D. closing diphthong

四、完型理解

(Cloze comprehension)

1. _____ is central to the study of communication; and as communication is becoming more and more a _____ factor in social life, the need to understand meaning is becoming more and more pressing. But the question of what meaning really is _____ to answer. Even linguists can not agree among themselves as to what meaning is. And what makes the matter even more _____ is that philosophers, psychologists, and _____ all claim a deep interest in the study of meaning, although they differ in their focus on interest. The _____ are interested in understanding the relations between linguistic expressions and the phenomena in the _____ world which they _____, and in evaluating the conditions of truth and falsehood of such expressions. The psychologists focus their interest on understanding the human _____ through language. This is why it is not surprising to find ten books all bearing the title "_____ " but talking about different things. In our discussion, we will limit ourselves to the study of meaning from a _____ point of view.

2. Every utterance occurs in a particular _____ situation, the main components of which include, apart from the place and time of the utterance, the _____ and the _____, the _____ they are performing at the time, the various objects and events existent in the situation.

The linguistic context, sometimes known as _____, is concerned with the probability of a word's _____ or collocation with another word, which forms part of the "_____" of the word, i.e. its collocative meaning, and also with the part of _____ that precedes and follows a particular utterance.

3. componential analysis is a way proposed by the _____ semantists to analyze word meaning. The approach is based upon the belief that the meaning of a word can be _____ into meaning components, called _____. This is _____ to the way a phoneme is analyzed into smaller components called distinctive features. Plus and minus signs are used to indicate whether a certain semantic feature is present or absent in the _____ of a word, and these feature _____ are usually written in _____ letters. For example, the word "man" is analyzed as comprising the _____ of + HUMAN, + ADULT, + ANIMATE, + MALE

4. Pragmatics can be defined in various ways. A general definition is that it is the study of how speaker of a language use sentences to effect successful _____. As the process of communication is essentially a process of conveying meaning in a _____ context, pragmatics can also be regarded as a kind of _____ study. Pragmatics is a comparatively new branch of study in the area of linguistics; its development and establishment in the 1960s and 1970s resulted mainly from the expansion of the study of linguistics, especially that of _____.

5. The notion of context is essential to the _____ study of language. It is generally considered as _____ by the knowledge shared by the speaker and the _____. The _____ knowledge is of two types: the knowledge of the _____ they use, and the knowledge about the _____, including the general knowledge about the world and the specific knowledge about the _____ in which linguistic communication is taking place. Without such _____, linguistic communication would not be possible, and without _____ such knowledge, linguistic communication cannot be satisfactorily accounted for in a pragmatic sense.

6. Historical linguistics is the subfield of linguistics that studies language _____. Historical linguists are concerned with the _____ development of languages and the processes involved in language change. Historical linguists look into the _____ of language change and the _____ - that lead to language change. They also explore methods and techniques with which they can _____ linguistic history and establish the relationship between languages that belong to the same language _____. These concerns constitute the major topics of this chapter.

7. Language change is essentially a matter of change in the grammar. We refer to the change in the grammar of a language as _____ change. Linguistic change occurs in all _____ of the grammar, including changes in the _____, morphological, _____, lexical, and _____ systems.

Although every part of the grammar is susceptible to change, some aspects of the grammar are more _____ to change than others. In general, linguistic change in the sound system and the vocabulary of a language is more _____ than that in other systems of the grammar. However, linguistic change _____ from language to language; no uniform change has occurred in the _____ grammatical components across languages. For example, in the case of linguistic change of English, the sound system has obviously undergone more radical changes than others _____ of the grammar.

8. The influence of _____ languages triggered many morphological changes in English. For example, some of the most widely used affixes of Modern English came from French. An example of a _____ rule that has been added to English since the Old English period is the addition of “-able” to a verb, such as “readable.” This is a productive _____ which converts a verb into an adjective. Initially, words ending in “-able,” such as “favorable” and “conceivable,” were borrowed altogether from French. Then this suffix became a _____ rule in English that was used with other verbs to form adjectives. Contemporary English speaker ap-

ply this suffix rule to more _____, thus producing new adjectives such as "pay-able," "do-able," and "wash-able."

9. Semantic broadening refers to the process in which the _____ of a word becomes more general or inclusive than its historically earlier _____. An example of semantic broadening is the modern use of the word "dog." In its Old English form "docga" and Middle English form "dogge," this word had a _____ meaning and was used for a hunting breed only. The general term for dogs was "hund." When "docga" and "dogge" became "dog," its meaning was broadened to _____ all breeds of canine animals. Its connotative meaning has also been _____ in modern casual speech to refer metaphorically to a disliked person. In its current usage, a dog is an animal with a tail like a horse. The earlier _____ of "tail," however, was not related in anyway to the dog species, but was used exclusively for the horse species.

10. Sociolinguistics is the subdiscipline of linguistics that studies language in social _____. In view of language as a primary means of _____ among individual speakers of a society, sociolinguists are concerned with the social significance of language _____ and language _____ in different speech communities including regional, _____ and social groups. Sociolinguists are also concerned with the impact of _____ factors on language use, such as age, gender, _____, and social status.

11. Dialects, whether regional or national, serve the purpose of communication among speakers of the same dialect usually living in a geographically definable area. A _____ dialect, as the term suggests, is usually spoken by a group of people living in the same region. A regional dialect as such may gain status and become _____ as the national or official language of a country, and spoken by most, if not all, of its citizens. Through _____ communication, a regional dialect may be used as the common tongue known as _____, between, or among, groups of people speaking different dialects or languages, or develop into a contact lan-

guage known as _____, spoken by the people of another region. A pidginized dialect may expand and eventually become the native language of a certain population known as _____.

12. Research findings have shown that language processing centers are not situated in a _____ area of the left hemisphere. Rather, there seem to be a number of language centers, each with its own specialized _____. In brain surgery, it was discovered that when electrical current was applied to a brain area involved in speech, no patient ever produced an intelligible word as a result of electrical stimulation. Neurologists have concluded that, in addition to the motor area which is responsible for physical articulation of utterances, three areas of the left hemisphere are vital to language, namely, _____'s area, _____'s area and the angular gyrus.

13. We know that no human child springs from the womb as a fully articulate language user. It is generally thought that the development of _____ in the brain may be connected to the language learning abilities of children in that the critical age for the acquisition of the first language _____ with the period of brain lateralization. Lenneberg hypothesized that the end of the critical period corresponds to the completion of the lateralization process, which results in the location of the language centers usually in the _____ hemisphere. According to Lenneberg, prior to that time both hemispheres are involved to some extent in language and one can take over if the other is damaged. This neurological flexibility is referred to in the literature as cerebral _____.

14. For some historical reasons that are not completely understood, natural languages have developed into different coding systems, in spite of the fact that all _____ share a general conceptualizing capacity. However a particular coding system comprises a particular set of _____ verbal symbols which do not arise from, nor do they give birth to, a particular conceptual system. As a matter of fact, speakers of different languages are capable of distinguishing and recognizing experiences according to their respec-

tively different linguistic coding systems for the same objective world. _____ speakers are not individuals with two different world views, but with one coherent view of the universe. When a bilingual speaker _____ between the two languages concerned, he or she is not converting one mode of thinking into the other, but rather, making _____ between the two linguistic coding systems. People do not develop double or multiple _____ from learning two or more languages. As regards the issue of translatability, precise translation between two genetically unrelated languages is _____, provided that one has a good command of both systems of linguistic codes.

15. Although language is not always a _____ condition for thought, the use of it is indispensable to the content, direction, and elaboration of particular thoughts. While we reject the _____ version of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, its weaker version is generally accepted by most scholars. We recognize that language does not so much determine the way we think as it _____ the way we perceive the world and recall things, and affects the ease with which we perform _____ tasks. That is, language may be used to provide new ideas, bring about a change in beliefs and values, solved problems, and keep track of things in memory.

16. Language _____ is concerned with language development in humans. In general, language acquisition refers to children's development of their _____ language, that is, the native language of the community in which a child has been brought up. With some people, language acquisition does not _____ at first language development. They have to acquire a second or foreign language for various reasons. The development of a _____ or native language (L_1) is called first language acquisition (FLA), and the development of a _____ or foreign language (L_2), second language acquisition (SLA).

17. Language acquisition is a genetically determined capacity that all humans are _____ with. Although the development of a communicative system is not unique to human beings, the natural acquisition of language as

a system of highly abstract rules and regulations for creative communication is what _____ humans from all other animal species. In this sense, humans can be said to be predisposed, that is, biologically programmed, to acquire at least one language. Language development can thus be regarded as _____ to other biological developments in human growth and maturation, such as the growth and maturation of one's limbs and organs. What is meant by this _____, or nativist, view of language acquisition is that humans are equipped with the neural _____ for language and language use, just as birds are biologically "prewired" to learn the songs of their species.

18. When we say that language acquisition is primarily the acquisition of the grammatical system of language, we do not mean that every specific rule allowed by the grammatical system of a language must be _____. What is actually acquired by young children are some _____ principles that are fundamental to the grammaticality of speech. It is noted that when producing _____, children tend to apply general grammatical rules and _____ individual irregular cases. For example, rather than simply _____ all the regular and exceptional form for English plural nouns and past tense verbs, children formulate and apply general rules that add "-s" to the noun stem and "-ed" to the verb stem. This provides a reasonable account for the fact that children usually make _____, or consistent, mistakes and go through periods when they make similar and predictable mistakes.

19. This is not to say that imitation plays no role whatsoever in learning one's native language. While many children rarely attempt to repeat the _____ they hear, some young language learners do seem to make selective use of imitation, for example, in learning some vocabulary. They imitate new words in constructions they have already learned and repeat novel constructions that contain words already familiar to them. Such _____ imitation suggests that children do not blindly mimic adult speech in a parrot fashion, but rather exploit it in very restricted ways to improve their linguistics.

tic skills. The point, again, is that imitation, like overt teaching, plays at best a very _____ role in the child's mastery of language.

20. Transfer can be positive or _____. It is apparent that for any two languages, similar patterns exist alongside different patterns in their grammatical and other systems. Presumably, positive transfer occurs when an L1 pattern is identical with, or similar to, a _____ pattern. Conversely, negative transfer occurs when an L1 pattern is _____ from the counterpart pattern of the target language. Negative transfer, a process more commonly known as _____, was once believed to be the major source of difficulties experienced and errors made by L2 learners on the ground that where differences existed between L1 and L2, the learner's L1 knowledge would interfere with the _____ language.

21. If, as it was once assumed, learners, were provided sufficient and the right kind of language exposure and opportunities to _____ with language input, their interlanguage would develop gradually in the direction of the _____ language competence. It was found, however, most L2 learners failed to _____ the end-point of the interlanguage continuum and acquire the native-like competence in the _____ language. An explanation provided for this break in learning is that a learner's interlanguage _____ some way short of target language competence while the internalized rule system contained rules that are _____ from those of the target language system. The fossilization of the learner's interlanguage is believed to be a major source of _____ forms resistant to further instruction.

22. Linguistics is generally defined as the _____ study of _____. The word "language" preceded by the zero article in English implies that _____ studies not any particular language, e.g., English, Chinese, Arabic, and Latin, but languages in general. The word "study" does not mean, "learn" but "investigate" or "examine." And the word "scientific" refers to the way in which it is studied. A scientific study of language is based on the systematic _____ of data, conducted with reference to some general theory of language _____.

参考答案

一、填空题

1. Polglot
2. Articulatory; auditory
3. Neurolinguistics
4. Anthropological linguistics
5. Egyptian
6. yo-he-ho
7. pooh-pooh
8. contact
9. systems
10. interaction; transmission
11. arbitrary
12. Sanskrit
13. Romans; Latin
14. diversity; differences
15. comparative
16. Syntactic Structure
17. Celtic
18. Angles; Saxons; Jutes
19. {Canterbury Tale}
20. sounds; air-stream
21. vocal; voiced
22. voiced; voiceless; voiced
23. tongue; lips
24. closure
25. lip; teeth
26. soft palate
27. Nasal

- 28. Tense
 - 29. Back
 - 30. front; back
 - 31. height
 - 32. open
 - 33. pure vowel; diphthong
 - 34. beginning ' end
 - 35. closing
 - 36. centering
 - 37. lops
 - 38. front ' hard
 - 39. nose
 - 40. lateral
 - 41. sounds
 - 42. phonemics
 - 43. phonemes
 - 44. identical
 - 45. inseparable
 - 46. morphemes
 - 47. bound; free
 - 48. closed; open
 - 49. procedures
 - 50. paradigm; conjugation
 - 51. parsing
 - 52. sound
 - 53. synchronic; Diachronic
 - 54. structural
 - 55. forms; meaning
 - 56. phonemes
 - 57. last
 - 58. deep; surface
- 192 •

- 59. meaning
- 60. structure; sound; meaning
- 61. homophones
- 62. Homographs
- 63. metaphorical
- 64. Metonymy
- 65. sense-relations; John Lyons
- 66. incompatible
- 67. conditions
- 68. false
- 69. locutionary; illocutionary; perlocutionary
- 70. Message Model
- 71. vehicle
- 72. decoding
- 73. non-literally
- 74. Writing
- 75. word
- 76. alphabetic
- 77. kinesics
- 78. proxemics
- 79. Stylistic; content
- 80. freedom; constraints
- 81. style; pattern
- 82. Style; style
- 83. arbitrary
- 84. Aptitude; languages
- 85. allophones
- 86. peak
- 87. Morpheme
- 88. order
- 89. Embedding

- 90. form; referent
- 91. 19th; sound; narrow; broad
- 92. Articulatory; sounds
- 93. semantic; phonological; syntactic; semantic
- 94. Backformation
- 95. verbs; adjectives
- 96. structures; words
- 97. Polysemy
- 98. extra linguistic
- 99. informality
- 100. study; languages
- 101. Articulatory; sounds
- 102. Reception; ear
- 103. nouns; verbs; adjectives; adverbs
- 104. descriptive; prescriptive
- 105. articulatory; auditory; acoustic
- 106. prefix; suffix; infix
- 107. bracketing
- 108. Ideogram
- 109. Latin
- 110. phatic; performative
- 111. parole
- 112. cords
- 113. 1888
- 114. complementary; distribution
- 115. stem
- 116. Exocentric
- 117. bachelor
- 118. Plato
- 119. domain
- 120. Displacement

121. English (British)
 122. air-stream
 123. a
 124. broad
 125. co-occurrence
 126. case
 127. arguments; predicate
 128. CCCV
 129. John Austin
 130. communication

二、英汉术语互译

答案见英汉术语互译对照表

三、选择题

- | | | | | | |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. A | 2. C | 3. A | 4. D | 5. C | 6. A |
| 7. D | 8. D | 9. A | 10. C | 11. C | 12. B |
| 13. B | 14. A | 15. D | 16. D | 17. B | 18. B |
| 19. D | 20. A | 21. C | 22. A | 23. A | 24. D |
| 25. C | 26. A | 27. D | 28. A | 29. C | 30. D |
| 31. C | 32. C | 33. D | 34. C | 35. D | 36. A |
| 37. D | 38. B | 39. D | 40. C | 41. A | 42. A |
| 43. B | 44. A | 45. C | 46. A | 47. A | 48. C |
| 49. A | 50. B | 51. A | 52. A | 53. B | 54. A |
| 55. B | 56. B | 57. D | 58. C | 59. D | 60. A |
| 61. A | 62. B | 63. B | 64. A | 65. D | 66. A |
| 67. C | 68. B | 69. A | 70. D | 71. D | 72. A |
| 73. C | 74. B | 75. C | 76. D | 77. A | 78. B |
| 79. A | 80. D | 81. C | 82. B | 83. A | 84. D |
| 85. B | 86. B | 87. D | 88. A | 89. B | 90. B |
| 91. A | 92. C | 93. D | 94. C | 95. D | 96. B |

四、完型理解

1. meaning/ crucial/ difficult/ complicated/ logicians/ philosophers/ real/ refer to/ mind/ semantics/ linguistic
2. spatiotemporal/ speaker/ hearer/ actions/ co-text/ co-occurrence/ meaning/ text
3. structural/ semantic features/ parallel/ meaning/ symbols/ capitalized/ features
4. communication/ certain/ meaning/ semantics
5. pragmatic/ constituted/ hearer/ shared/ language/ world/ situation/ knowledge/ considering
6. change/ historical/ nature/ causes/ reconstruct/ family
7. linguistic/ components/ sound/ syntactic/ semantic/ vulnerable/ noticeable/ varies/ same/ components
8. foreign/ morphological/ suffix/ productive/ stems
9. meaning/ denotation/ narrower/ encompass/ extended/ meaning
10. context/ communication/ variation/ use/ ethnic/ extralinguistic/ profession
11. regional/ standardized/ cross-cultural/ lingua franca/ pidgin/ creole
12. solitary/ function/ Broca/ Wernicke
13. lateralization/ coincides/ left/ plasticity
14. humans/ arbitrary/ Biligual/ switches/ transitions/ personalities/ possible
15. necessary/ strong/ influences/ mental
16. acquisition/ first/ stop/ first/ second
17. endowed/ distinguishes/ analogous/ biological/ prerequisites
18. acquired/ general/ utterances/ defy/ memorizing/ nonrandom
19. utterances/ selective/ minor
20. negative/ target language/ different/ interference/ second
21. interact/ target/ reach/ target/ fossilized/ different/ incorrect
22. scientific/ language/ linguistic/ investigation/ structure

An English-Chinese Glossary

(英汉术语对照表)

1. abbreviation 缩写法
2. acculturation 语言文化移入
3. acoustic phonetics 声学语音学
4. acronym 词首字母缩略词
5. address term 称谓语
6. addresser 发话人
7. addressee 受话人
8. adjacency 毗邻
9. Adjacency Condition 毗邻条件
10. Adjacency Parameter 毗邻参数
11. affix 词缀
12. affixation 加词缀法
13. affricate 塞擦音
14. Afroasiatic 非亚语系
15. agreement rule 一致关系规则
16. allophone 音位变体
17. alveolar 齿龈音 (的)
18. alveolus 齿龈
19. angular gyrus 角形脑回
20. antonymy 反义现象
21. antonym 反义词
22. apocope 词尾音 (或字母) 脱落
23. aphasia 失语症
24. aphasic 失语症患者
25. applied linguistics 应用语言学

26. arbitrariness 任意性
27. argument 论元
28. arresting cluster 元音后辅音丛
29. articulatory phonetics 发音语音学
30. articulatory variable 发音变项
31. aspiration 送气
32. assimilation 同化
33. approximation 近似化
34. auditory phonetics 听觉语音学, 感知语音学
35. Austronesian 澳斯特罗尼西亚语系
36. babbling 咿呀学语
37. back-formation 逆向构词法
38. back vowel 后元音
39. Behaviorism 行为主义
40. Behaviorist learning theory 行为主义学习理论
41. Behaviorist Psychology 行为主义心理学
42. bilabial 双唇音
43. bilingualism 双语现象
44. Black English 黑人英语
45. blending 混合法
46. borrowing 借用
47. bound morpheme 黏着语素
48. bow-wow theory 摹声说
49. brain lateralization 大脑左右半球的侧化
50. branching node 分叉点
51. broad transcription 宽式标音
52. Broca's area (大脑的) 布罗卡区
53. caretaker speech 保姆语
54. case 格
55. Case Condition 格条件
56. case marking 格标记

- 57. causative verb 使役动词
- 58. centering diphthong 向心双元音
- 59. central vowel 中元音
- 60. cerebral cortex 大脑皮层
- 61. cerebral plasticity 大脑弹性
- 62. channel 渠道
- 63. classical language 古典语言
- 64. clipping 略写法
- 65. closed class word 封闭类词
- 66. closing diphthong 合口双元音
- 67. code 代码
- 68. code-switching 代码切换
- 69. cognate 同源词
- 70. cohesion 粘着
- 71. co-hyponyms 并列下义词
- 72. coinage 创新词
- 73. color word 色彩词
- 74. combinational rule 组合规则
- 75. commissives 承诺类
- 76. communicative competence 交际能力
- 77. comparative reconstruction 比较重建法
- 78. competence 语言能力
- 79. complement 补语
- 80. complement construction 补足语结构
- 81. complementarity 互补性反义现象
- 82. complementary distribution 互补分布
- 83. complex sentence 复合句
- 84. componential analysis 成分分析法
- 85. components of meaning 意义成分
- 86. compound sentence 并列句
- 87. compound word 复合词

- 88. compounding 复合法
- 89. computational linguistics 计算语言学
- 90. concept 概念
- 91. conceptualist view 意念观
- 92. consonant 辅音
- 93. constituent (结构) 成分
- 94. constituent structure 成分结构
- 95. constraint 制约
- 96. construction 结构
- 97. content word 实词
- 98. context 语境; 上下文
- 99. contextualism 语境论
- 100. Contrastive Analysis 对比分析法
- 101. conversational implicature 会话含义
- 102. co-operative principle 合作原则
- 103. coordinate sentence 并列句
- 104. creativity 创造性
- 105. critical period 关键期; 临界期
- 106. cultural transmission 文化传播
- 107. declarations 宣告类
- 108. deep structure 深层结构
- 109. denotation 所指, 所指意义; 外延
- 110. dental 齿音
- 111. ding-dong theory “本能论”
- 112. derivation 派生法
- 113. derivational morpheme 派生语素
- 114. derivative 派生词
- 115. descriptive linguistics 描写语言学
- 116. design feature 识别特征
- 117. determiner 限定词
- 118. deviance 变异

119. diachronic linguistics 历时语言学
120. diacritics 变音符号; 附加符号
121. dialect 方言
122. dialectal synonym 方言同义词
123. dichotic listening test 两耳分听测试
124. diglossia 双言现象
125. diphthong 二合元音; 复合元音
126. Directionality Parameter 方位参数
127. directives 指令类
128. displacement 不受时空限制的特性
129. distinctive feature 区别性特征
130. distinctive sound 区别音
131. D - structure 深层结构
132. duality of structure (or double articulation) 结构二重性
133. embedded clause 子句
134. emotive meaning 表情意义
135. entailment 含义
136. entity 实体
137. epenthesis 插入音
138. Error Analysis 错误分析法
139. etymology 词源学
140. euphemism 委婉语
141. evaluative meaning 评价意义
142. expressives 表达类
143. factive predicate 叙实性谓词
144. family tree 谱系树
145. feature symbol 特征标记
146. features of meaning 意义特征
147. finite clause 定式子句
148. finite verb 定式动词
149. formalize 形式化

- 150. fossilization 语言僵化
- 151. framework 框架
- 152. free morpheme 自由语素
- 153. free variant 自由变化
- 154. fricative 擦音
- 155. front vowel 前元音
- 156. function word 虚词
- 157. functional shift 功能性变化
- 158. functor element 起功能作用成分
- 159. gender 性
- 160. Generative Grammar 生成语法
- 161. Generative Semantics 生成语义学
- 162. genetic predisposition 基因先天条件
- 163. genetic relationship 亲缘关系
- 164. glide 滑音
- 165. glottal 喉音
- 166. glottal stop 喉塞音
- 167. glottis 声门
- 168. gradable opposites 可分等级的反义词
- 169. grammaticality 语法性
- 170. grammatical meaning 语法意义
- 171. Great Vowel Shift 元音大变位
- 172. hard palate 硬腭
- 173. head 核心词
- 174. hemispheric dominance for language 大脑半球的语言优势
- 175. hierarchical structure 层次结构
- 176. high variety 高层次变体
- 177. historical comparative linguistics 历史比较语言学
- 178. historical linguistics 历史语言学
- 179. holophrastic sentence 独词句
- 180. homography (词的) 同形

181. homonymy 同音异义; 同形异义
182. homophony 同音异义
183. hyponymy 下义关系
184. hyponym 下义词
185. idiolect 个人言语特点, 个人习语
186. illocutionary act 言外行为
187. immediate constituent 直接成分
188. inconsistency 自相矛盾
189. Indo-European 印欧语系
190. infinitive marker 不定式标记
191. inflection 屈折变化
192. inflectional morpheme 屈折语素
193. input 输入
194. instrumental motivation 工具性学习动机
195. intake 纳入、接受
196. integrative motivation 介入性学习动机
197. interference 干扰
198. interlanguage 语际语
199. internalize 内在化
200. International Phonetic Alphabet 国际音标
201. interpersonal communication 人际交际
202. intonation 语调
203. intrapersonal communication 自我交际
204. intuition 直觉; 语感
205. kernel sentence 核心句
206. k-terminal string 核心终端语符列
207. kinesics 身势学
208. labeled (unlabelled) tree diagram 加标记 (不加标记) 的树形图
209. labial 唇音
210. LAD 语言习得机制

- 211. language acquisition 语言习得
- 212. language behavior 语言行为
- 213. language center (大脑的) 语言中枢
- 214. language faculty (大脑的) 语言机制
- 215. language family 语系
- 216. language perception 语言感知
- 217. language planning 语言规划
- 218. language variation 语言变异
- 219. larynx 喉
- 220. lax vowel 松元音
- 221. level 层; 平面
- 222. level of language 语言层次
- 223. lexical category 词类
- 224. lexical - insertion rule 词汇插入原则
- 225. lexical structure 词汇结构
- 226. lexicology 词汇学
- 227. lexicon 词汇
- 228. linear structure 线性结构
- 229. linguistic competence 语言能力
- 230. linguistic determinism 语言决定论
- 231. linguistic geography 语言地理学
- 232. linguistic lateralization (大脑的) 语言侧化
- 233. linguistic performance 语言运用; 语言行为
- 234. linguistic relativism 语言相对论
- 235. linguistic repertoire (使用者掌握的) 全部语言变体
- 236. linguistic taboo 禁忌语
- 237. linguistics 语言学
- 238. liquid 流音
- 239. loan word 外来词
- 240. localization (大脑功能) 定位
- 241. locutionary act 言内行为

- 242. low variety 低层次变体
- 243. manner of articulation 发音方法
- 244. matrix clause 主句
- 245. maxim of manner 方式准则
- 246. maxim of quality 质量准则
- 247. maxim of quantity 数量准则
- 248. maxim of relation 关联准则
- 249. meaning 意义
- 250. meaningfulness 有意义
- 251. meaning relation 意义关系
- 252. mentalism 心理主义; 心灵主义
- 253. mentalistic theory 精神论
- 254. message 信息
- 255. metaphor 隐喻
- 256. metathesis 语音变位
- 257. metonymy 换喻; 转喻
- 258. Middle English 中世纪英语
- 259. minimal pair 最小对立对
- 260. Modern English 现代英语
- 261. monophthong 单元音
- 262. morpheme 词素
- 263. morphological rule 形态学规则
- 264. morphology 形态学
- 265. mother tongue 母语
- 266. Move α 移动 α 规则
- 267. movement rule 移位规则
- 268. naming theory 命名论
- 269. narrow transcription 严式标音
- 270. narrowing of meaning 词义缩小
- 271. nasal cavity 鼻腔
- 272. nasality 鼻音化

- 273. natural route of development 自然发展轨道
 - 274. negator 否定词
 - 275. neurolinguist 神经语言学家
 - 276. neuron 神经原
 - 277. no-place predication 空位述谓结构
 - 278. object 宾语
 - 279. Old English 古英语
 - 280. one-place predication 一位述谓结构
 - 281. optimum age 最佳学习年龄
 - 282. oral cavity 口腔
 - 283. overextension 扩展过度
 - 284. overgeneralization 概括过度
 - 285. overt thought 有声思维
 - 286. palatal 腭音
 - 287. paralinguistic 副语言学的, 伴随语言学的
 - 288. parameter 参数
 - 289. performance 语言运用
 - 290. performance error 语言运用错误
 - 291. perlocutionary act 言后行为
 - 292. pharyngeal cavity 咽腔
 - 293. phone 音素
 - 294. phoneme 音位
 - 295. phonemic contrast 音位对立
 - 296. phonetic feature 语音特征
 - 297. phonetics 语音学
 - 298. phonological rule 音位规则
 - 299. phonology 音系学
 - 300. phrasal category 词组类
 - 301. phrase structure rule 短语结构规则
 - 302. pidgin 洋泾浜语
 - 303. place of articulation 发音部位
- 206 •

- 304. plosive 爆破音
- 305. polysemy 多义性; 多义现象
- 306. postpone 后移
- 307. prepose 前移
- 308. postvocalic 元音后的
- 309. pragmatics 语用学
- 310. predicate 谓语
- 311. predication 述谓结构
- 312. predication analysis 述谓结构分析
- 313. prefix 前缀
- 314. prescriptive (grammar) 规定 (语法)
- 315. presupposition 前提
- 316. proposition 命题
- 317. propositional content 命题内容
- 318. protolanguage 原始语
- 319. proxemics 近体学
- 320. psycholinguistics 心理语言学
- 321. puberty 青春期
- 322. qualifying predication 修饰性述谓结构
- 323. Received Pronunciation 标准发音
- 324. recursiveness 循环性
- 325. reference (所指) 语义
- 326. referent 所指
- 327. referring expression 所指名词
- 328. register 语域
- 329. relational opposites 关系反义词
- 330. representation 表达; 呈现
- 331. representatives 阐述类
- 332. resonance 共鸣
- 333. resonance chamber 共鸣腔
- 334. response 反应

- 335. restricted code 限制性代码
- 336. restricted language 限制性语言
- 337. retained object 保留宾语
- 338. retro flexion 卷舌
- 339. retroflex 卷舌音
- 340. rewrite rule 重写规则
- 341. rheumatics (同 rheumatology, philosophical semantics) 意元学
- 342. rheme 述位; 解说; 述题
- 343. rhetorics 修辞学
- 344. rhotacism r 音化
- 345. rhyme 韵; 韵脚
- 346. rhythm 节奏
- 347. rising-falling 升降调
- 348. Romance linguistics 罗曼语语言学
- 349. Romance linguistics 罗马文字化
- 350. root 舌根; 词根
- 351. root-creation 词根创新词
- 352. root-inflected language 词根屈折语
- 353. root-isolation language 词根孤立语
- 354. rounded 圆唇的
- 355. rounding 圆唇化
- 356. Saying 谚语
- 357. rounded vowel 圆唇元音
- 358. SAE 标准美国英语
- 359. Sapir-Whorf hypothesis 萨丕尔——沃尔夫假设
- 360. second language acquisition 第二语言习得
- 361. segment 切分成分
- 362. semantic anomaly 语义异体
- 363. semantic deviation 语义变异
- 364. semantic broadening 语义广义化
- 365. semantic narrowing 语义狭义化

- 366. semantic shift 语义演变
- 367. semantics 语义学
- 368. semantic structure 语义结构
- 369. semantic triangle 语义三角
- 370. sense 意义
- 371. sequential rule 序列规则
- 372. setting 背景; 环境
- 373. sexist language 性别歧视语
- 374. sibilant 嘶音
- 375. simple sentence 简单句
- 376. Sino-Tibetan 汉藏语系
- 377. situational dialect 语域方言
- 378. sociolect 社会方言
- 379. sociolinguistics 社会语言学
- 380. soft palate 软腭
- 381. species-specific capacity 物种特有的能力
- 382. specifier 指示语
- 383. spectrograph 频谱仪
- 384. speech act 言语行为
- 385. speech community 言语社区
- 386. speech variety 言语变体
- 387. S-structure 表层结构
- 388. standard language 标准语
- 389. stem 词干
- 390. stimulus 刺激
- 391. stop 爆破音
- 392. stress 重音
- 393. structural constituency 结构成分性
- 394. structural linguistics 结构主义语言学
- 395. subject 主语
- 396. subordinate predication 主从述谓性结构

- 397. subscript 下标
- 398. subvocal speech 无声言语
- 399. suffix 后缀
- 400. superordinate 上坐标词
- 401. suprasegmental feature 超切分特征
- 402. surface structure 表层结构
- 403. switching 变换
- 404. syllabary 音节表
- 405. syllabic 音节的
- 406. syllable nucleus 音节核心
- 407. symbol 语符; 符号
- 408. synaesthesia 联觉
- 409. synchronic linguistics 共时语言学
- 410. syndeton 连接结构
- 411. synesis 循义-致
- 412. synonym 同义词
- 413. synonymy 同义词; 同义现象
- 414. syntactic ambiguity 句法歧义
- 415. syntactic category 句法类型
- 416. syntactic component 句法部分
- 417. syntactic construction 句法结构
- 418. syntactic order 句法词序; 词序
- 419. syntactic pattern 句法模式
- 420. syntactic rule 句法规则
- 421. syntactics 句法学; 符号关系学
- 422. syntax 句法
- 423. synthetic language 综合型语言
- 424. systemic grammar 系统语法
- 425. taboo word 禁忌词
- 426. target language 目标语
- 427. tautology 同义反复

- 428. teeth ridge 齿龈隆骨
- 429. telegraphic speech 电报式言语
- 430. tense and aspect 时和体
- 431. tense vowel 紧元音
- 432. tone 音调; 声调
- 433. tone language 声调语言
- 434. topic 话题; 主题
- 435. transfer 转移
- 436. Transformational-Generative Grammar 转换生成语法
- 437. transformational rule 转换规则
- 438. tree diagram 树形图
- 439. two-place predication 双位述谓结构
- 440. typology 类型学
- 441. unaspirated 不送气
- 442. underextension 扩展不足
- 443. Universal Grammar 普遍语法
- 444. utterance 话语
- 445. utterance meaning 话语意义
- 446. uvula 小舌
- 447. validity 有效性
- 448. variable 变项
- 449. velar 软腭音
- 450. velum 软腭
- 451. vernacular 本地话; 本国语
- 452. vocal cord 声带
- 453. voiced 浊音化的
- 454. voiceless 不带音的, 清音的
- 455. voicing 带音化, 浊音化
- 456. vowel 元音
- 457. vulgar 粗语(词语); 下流(词语)
- 458. vulgarism 粗俗语

- 459. wave theory 波浪论
- 460. weak declension 弱词尾变化
- 461. Wernicke's area (大脑的) 韦尼克区
- 462. widening of meaning 词义扩大
- 463. word order 词序
- 464. X-bar theory X 标杆理论
- 465. Yo-He-Ho theory 劳动喊声说
- 466. zero 零形式
- 467. zero anaphora 零指前

参考书目

- 《语言学概论》王德春 上海外语教育出版社，98年版
- 《英语语言学基础读本》李延福 山东大学出版社，99年版
- 《现代语言学的特点和发展趋势》 戚雨村 上海外语教育出版社 98年版
- 《社会语言学》[英] R.A. 郝德森著，卢德平译华夏出版社，89年版
- 《心理语言学》桂诗春上海外语出版社，85年版
- 《现代语言学》何兆熊、梅德明 外语教学与研究出版社，99年版
- 《现代英语语言学概念》戴炜炼 上海外语教育出版社
- 《英语语言学精要问答与考试指南》 候国金 中国地质学出版社出版
- 《英语语言学基础学习指南》温洪瑞主编，山东大学出版社，99年版